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The Vocational Guidance Quarterly

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Message from the

PRESIDENT

WHITHER NVGA?

One obvious answer to this question is—
"To Denver in 1961." Now is the time for NVGA members and groups to begin planning to attend and

participate in the 1961 Convention.

NVGA Program Chairman, Dr. DWane R. Collins, Director, Counseling Center, The Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Colorado, has been working closely with the APGA Program Committee and expects to have a good program blocked out by late summer or early fall. He is being assisted by Dr. Marvin Burack, Supervisor of Bureau of Counseling Services, Chicago Board of Education who recently became Program Chairman-Elect for the 1962 Convention in Chicago.

NVGA's Section and Interest groups and some individual members of the Association have already made good proposals for program items.

Any group or person with an idea and the drive to see it through should communicate directly with Dwane. General suggestions should also be sent to him.

In order that NVGA may be well represented in the APGA Delegate Assembly, all NVGA branches are urged to identify their actual or potential delegates to the NVGA Delegate Assembly as soon as possible and to report their names and addresses to Dr. Harold J. Reed, Los Angeles County Schools, Los Angeles, California.

The big majority of NVGA's representatives

in the APGA legislative body will be chosen from delegates to the NVGA Delegate Assembly who are



present at the first meeting of this group in Denver.

This new method of choosing delegates, authorized by a recent Constitutional amendment, will insure good numerical representation of NVGA in the APGA Delegate Assembly. It can best deliver informed representation if steps are taken now to identify possible delegates and to provide them the background they will need for intelligent action. If the branches will select representatives early and report their names to Harold, he will see that they have adequate opportunity to become prepared for any duties that may arise.

NVGA is now in a strategic position to consider carefully and seriously the question of what its long-time goal in APGA and in the personnel movement should be. It has weathered the troublous transition years that saw it become a unit of a comprehensive personnel and guidance association rather than a general organization itself. In some respects, for instance membership, it has emerged from this period stronger than ever before. It is now performing many useful services and providing an organizational home for thousands of individuals, but it has not spelled out clearly what its permanent function The time is ripe for it to do so and all members of the organization are invited to participate in the challenging task.

At its late May meeting, The Board of Trustees approved the holding of small informal seminars throughout the country to discuss the question "Whither NVGA?" Already two such seminars have been conducted with encouraging results. I arranged one to follow the spring meeting of the Greater Boston PGA and another as an aftermath of a meeting of consultants on guidance to the College Entrance Examination Board. This technique of taking advantage of opportunities offered by scheduled meetings of personnel and guidance groups is recommended. It is also suggested that seminar groups be limited to a maximum of 10; that the organizer serve as chairman and keep notes; that free discussion be encouraged; and that a summary of each seminar be forwarded to Dr. William C. Cottle, Director, Guidance Bureau, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas, the current Chairman of the NVGA Study Commission.

(Continued on page 201)

High Hopes

by ANNE ROE

Address to Annual Luncheon, National Vocational Guidance Association, at the APGA Convention in Philadelphia, April 13, 1960

AM TROUBLED in my mind. I am intensely worried over the future of man. I am dissatisfied with psychology and psychologists. I think our educational system needs a major overhauling job, and I do not think that better technological or even better academic training is the only thing we need or even the most important thing. I think we need some radical changes in attitudes and in the ends we seek. I think that you and others similarly engaged are in the most strategic position to institute and advance some of these changes, and I have high hopes that some of you, at least, agree with me.

Shifting Perspectives

In order to make clear just what it is that dissatisfies me so, and also in fairness, to expose some of my personal biases, let me tell you a little of my professional history. I graduated from college in 1923, and went on to graduate school to study psychology. I am still studying it.

Thinking of a career in terms of successive choice points it is clear that at each choice point I tended away from dealing with the pathological, although I was more interested in clinical than in experimental procedures. I make this point thus bluntly because you

must realize that it shows distinct bias for a clinical psychologist, which I have generally been considered, although I personally prefer to omit the adjective. Some of my professional choice points have also been affected by the exigencies of a personal life that has included raising four stepdaughters and traveling extensively with my husband.

My first non-academic professional job was with a research project here in Philadelphia concerned with aphasia, although my part of the project was to apply a large test battery to a control sample of normal adults which should resemble the patient population in appropriate ways. I secured the sample in the Philadelphia hospitals, mostly on the wards, using as subjects patients who were hospitalized for such things as appendectomies or fractures or other situations apparently not related to neurotic disabilities (although we were considerably less sophisticated about those matters then than we are now).

I want to record here, as I have elsewhere, that this experience had a lasting effect upon me. I felt I came to know some of these people very well, and I developed a very profound respect for the "average man," and an abiding faith in his basic dignity and decency, which served to correct the overly high valuation of intelligence and intellectual interests that I think often

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accompanies a college education.

After this I was lucky enough to spend a vear at Worcester State Hospital, then one of the few places for good, intensive training in clinical and research procedures. Even there, though, I was less occupied with patients than with training staff. I worked for a while with new-born infants, also a most enlightening experience as well as a lot of fun. Later I completed a study started by Barbara Burks on how foster children turned out when their own parents had been variously alcoholic, psychotic or (It did not make much difference.)

Next I tackled the problem of the relation of the use of alcohol to creative expression in painting, doing a clinical study of leading American painters. This marks a very important shift in my interests. With the exception of a long study of intelligence in mental disorder, the majority of my work had been with "normals," but this study included both my first use of proiective techniques, and my first serious inquiry into anyone's occupational life. The most important illumination-to me-was the intimate relationship I found between the personalities of these men and why and how they painted, and the overriding importance of their vocations to them.

Personality and Occupation

I was so impressed by the fruitfulness of the techniques I used for that investigation, which included life histories and study of the work as well as projective techniques, that I wanted to try them out with other professional groups, and was fortunate enough to secure the funds to make a study of eminent research scientists. I found the same thing: an intimate relationship between personality (as inferred from tests and life histories) and the choice of vocation, the way in which it was pursued, and its meaning for the subject.

Up to then, in studying personality and occupation, I had been working with highly successful persons in very limited fields, and I felt that it was at least reasonable to hypothesize that such relationships as I had found in the groups I had studied might also be found across the board. I was the more attracted to this as an area of study because of my conviction that the approaches to personality dynamics which were (and are) usual were pathologically oriented. seemed to me that the inclusion of material from the occupational life could be most illuminating clinically, and rather easily obtainable. It disturbed me very much that from the usual psychological materials I could pretty well have predicted the problems my subjects had, but I could usually not have predicted how well they had been able to cope with their problems. I could measure their weaknesses but I had few measures of the strengths that their lives had demonstrated.

I began to look into the literature on occupations, on counseling, on industrial psychology, and so on, with which I confess I had had very little acquaintance previously—and then I wrote a book. I did not succeed as well as I had hoped (according to some of my reviewers) in exhaustive coverage, but I did make a pretty comprehensive survey, and although the evidence was sparse and much of it only peripherally relevant, it seemed to me that patterns were suggested, if only dimly, and I have been trying to

get them into sharper focus ever since.

Surprises Occur

As usual, some things surprised me, and also as usual I guess, they were things that were old hat to lots of other people, including probably yourselves. In the first place I had never fully appreciated the extreme importance of family socioeconomic background and how it functioned to facilitate some and interfere with the opening of other possible avenues of development. I would have said, if asked, that of course it was a factor, and in taking a case history I would have noted it, but I would not have thought about it either sufficiently or appropriately. And I would not have paid very much attention to the occupational history of a clinic patient, unless it were markedly aberrant. I consider this a serious deficiency in much of our clinical practices and training.

In the second place I was perfectly astounded, and I am sure this sounds very naïve to you, at the value and use of interest tests, and the important roles of attitudes and interests in general, not only for occupational studies, but much more broadly. As some of you may know, my conviction of their central importance profoundly affected the development of the classification of occupations at which I finally arrived. I also thought that I saw indications of some relationships between early experiences and the development of different kinds of interests and I am currently engaged upon a research project designed to find out if this is true. We have completed the first of three attempts to check this, with no definitive results, and are presently engaged in gathering data for two other checks which are considerably more rigorously designed. This seems to me a very crucial and basic issue, not only in the problem of career development, but also for general developmental psychology.

To wind up this personal history, I have the luck to be now associated with Hummel and Tiedeman, and am thus getting my horizons broadened still further. Last semester we had a seminar on research in career development which helped pull together some of the newer work for us, such as that going on at Teachers College, at Michigan, and in several different groups at Harvard.

Centrality of Occupation

All of this confirms me in my conviction that in our culture at this time an occupation plays a central role in every man's life and in every woman's (although sometimes for a woman the most significant occupation is not her own); that it both reflects personality and affects it; that it may aid in integration, or serve to interfere with it; that it may protect against development or expression of neurosis, or may serve as a vehicle for neurotic expression.

For most persons (other, perhaps, than women filling primarily the roles of wives and mothers) no other institution has a comparable influence, or comparable possibilities for personal development. Perhaps one could work up a debate on the desirability of this, but I think the fact that the occupation usually plays a central role is undeniable. In terms of offering an endless array of means to self-actualization through an infinite variety of modes of activity and of expression, a highly diversified occupational structure offers more to *Homo* sapiens than anything else I can conceive of, and presumably this is why we have it.

The flexibility and variety of the combinations a diversified occupational structure makes possible can protect society against too much conformity and also make it conceivably possible for every human, whatever his problems, to be an effectively functioning person in society. But we do not begin to make the most of the possibilities.

True, there are dangers, particularly if the diversity is unbalanced. but these are not inevitable concomitants of the institution. They are rather the result of our own reluctance to face reality. nothing original about the observation that our knowledge of technologies seems to have outstripped our knowledge of ourselves, that it is easier for man to tov with nuclear forces than to come to grips with the problem of population explosion. I suppose you could suggest that this is his way of coming to grips with the problem, a typically neurotic way. It may be true that our species has not the effective adaptive range to meet this challenge and that it will be replaced by some more adaptable species as so many other species have been replaced in the long history of life on this planet. Only man will care. And unless he cares enough he will not survive.

Capacity for Survival

The adaptive range of any species is limited by the adaptive ranges of its members; every individual member has a significant role. The human capacity for rational thought, and for deliberate, consciousness control of action is the only thing we have which can

assure our survival. It is a capacity that seemed for a while, a century or so ago, to be coming into its own, but it fell into disrepute, largely I think, because it was overly separated conceptually from the emotional bases of action. Man is one; it is not that part of him thinks and part of him feels and never the twain shall meet (even if they do inhabit the same body somehow), but that seems to be how it appeared.

Early psychoanalytic doctrine took much the same position (as do the religious fundamentalists for that matter). Development of ego psychology is really very recent, but holds promise for finally superseding older concepts. Psychotherapeutic techniques of whatever school all aim at making more and more areas of experience accessible to consciousness, and hence bringing actions more and more under conscious control.

Now diagnosis and therapy are important and useful occupations, but they are not enough. Something about our present cultural situation is producing more people who need these personal, individual services than we can possibly produce to meet the need. Even if we could develop techniques more effective by several hundred or even a thousand per cent (and frankly I see no signs of it) we would still not be able to take care of the number of disturbed personalities we are producing.

Psychologists and others are well aware of this, e.g., the members of the Miami Beach Conference on Graduate Education in Psychology declared that "Much of the work of psychologists trained in the synergetic specialties at the doctoral level has been in one form or other of a person-to-person relationship,

and many of the younger psychologists are moving this way. Essential as this function is, its cost is becoming unbearably great in a society in which this type of approach alone cannot ever meet the extent of the needs for which it is designed. It therefore behooves us to foster innovation in devising and evaluating other and more efficient ways of meeting these needs."

On Becoming People

We've gotten ourselves into a bind that we can only get out of by some drastic revision of something somewhere. But we are not doing much about it. Oh, yes, there is more emphasis on group therapy and on milieu therapy, and certainly these should help, but this is still not tackling the main problem. Nor is the mental hygiene movement. We do know a little something about situations that may lead to mental disturbance, and maybe some of them are preventable, but I submit that this is an attempt to find the answers to the wrong questions.

We should be asking, how do people develop competency in living, how do people become people?

Here is where the schools come in. I think that the primary aim of education should not be the teaching of any skills whatsoever, in the usual sense of skills, but helping the child find out what it means to be a human. This means helping him to admit to awareness whatever he may experience, develop understanding and control of his actions, learn to fit one experience into his other experiences, and the experiences of other people. means learning that one confront reality zestfully, can face difficulties willingly, can mobilize all his resources to deal with them. Certainly to do this fully he needs language skills and skills in interacting with other people, and with the non-personal elements in the environment. But such skills are means, not ends in themselves. I do not imply that these skills are unimportant. I think they are vital and I agree with many critics of our schools that we have not developed such proficiency in them as we could and should but I do not think our educational goals should be based upon apparent expediency.

The appropriate is always the fullest possible development of the individual's potentialities, and his meaningful integration into society. Some progressive educators forgot that man is a gregarious species and that isolation must preclude full and rich development. Obviously our educational system is not producing enough persons who understand and accept their own nature and the culture it has produced.

Much Needs Questioning

It is not going to be easy to introduce any great modification of the elementary school curriculum, or the high school or college for that matter, which will lead immediately in the direction of increasing every child's self-awareness and his use of rational thought, for this must inevitably mean much questioning of old beliefs. Here is where you come in. Relax, I do not expect you to become mass therapists, or even mass educators. I do think that you are in a peculiarly advantageous position to advance the cause of self-awareness without inevitably raising difficult problems for the children, their parents, and vourselves.

The importance of getting into a personally enriching and socially useful occupation is not seriously questioned by the public, even though it is not always willing to put up adequate funds. This is at the very least an issue which can be convincingly stated, and which the present social climate supportsif for all the wrong reasons. Vocational guidance has always worked from the premise that something about the individual ought to be matched up with something about the occupation, and the fact that what somethings were seen to be most relevant has changed considerably, and will likely change still more in the future, does not alter the basic premise. About this, too, there will be little argument.

Self Perception Vital

But we know now that much more is involved in vocational selection than aptitudes, or even than aptitudes plus interests, and that the most important thing for the child is to be helped to evaluate his own personal attributes, what he wants, what he needs, what he likes, what he does best, what he does least well, what he is willing to spend time to learn, what kind of life overall will most likely satisfy him, in the sense of giving him the greatest fulfillment. The better he understands himself the better basis he has for making a choice whenever the need for a choice comes along, and he will have many choices to make when you will not be there to advise him.

It is easy enough to give him a batch of percentiles but it is these subtler things that are more important, and that he needs help on. In fact, very often, what is most necessary is to call his attention to what things are relevant for him. By the time they have been in school a few years, most children know pretty well where they stack up with respect to the rest of the

class in skills in and out of the classroom. They probably have not thought about how important it is to them to be in one position or another in the class. They do not know how their class stacks up with respect to other classes, and they do not know the significance of skills in living that are ungraded.

Job Search Is Complex

This is one side of it. They also do not know much about the world of work. And here you come in again. You can help them now with such obvious information as the educational and skill requirements of various jobs, but we know pitifully little about what is likely to make a job good or bad for any particular person. By good I mean a job that demands as much as a man can stretch to give, that fits appropriately into the total context of his life, that may meet needs not met elsewhere.

Part of the difficulty is that for many jobs, especially those below semi-professional or managerial levels, the actual task is of less importance than the circumstances under which it is performed. The amount and nature of contact with others is an extremely important variable, for example. At the professional end, the situation is likely to be reversed, with the task more important than the circumstances under which it is done.

Human Problems Remain

Now I come back to where I started. It is because occupations are so important a part of living, because a good working situation can help develop strength, and a poor one can do only harm; because competency in this phase of life can contribute enormously to general competency in living; because I believe that the competent

human, in this sense, is a human who can face and master human problems, and because it is these this that I think your function and problems, not technological ones,

that must be mastered if humanity is to survive-it is because of all your opportunity is a critical one.

NVGA ACHIEVEMENT AWARDS

ll NVGA Branches are invited to nominate two persons for the 1961 Individual Achievement Awards to be announced at the national convention in Denver.

Individual Awards

One nominee should be a person who has made an outstanding national contribution to the vocational guidance effort. The other should be a person who has made a noteworthy local or regional contribution. A rather complete vita, which gives special emphasis to activities in the broad area of vocational guidance, should be submitted for each nominee.

If a branch wishes to make only one nomination, it should feel free to do so.

Branch Awards

Branches wishing consideration for the 1961 Branch Achievement Award should submit a detailed description of accomplishments with supporting evidence.

Nominations for both individual and branch awards should be sent to C. Winfield Scott, Graduate School of Education, Rutgers, the State University, New Brunswick, New Jersey, by December 1, 1960 at the latest.

President's Message (Continued from page 194)

Anyone may take the initiative in organizing and conducting a seminar. If enough loyal members do this, the desirable future of NVGA may take more definite form by the time of the Denver Convention.

Sincerely,

Win Sea

Vocational Guidance Manuscripts

Do you have a manuscript for the Quarterly? Short articles (500 to 1,500 words) related to vocational guidance are of interest to NVGA readers in schools, industry, government, and agencies throughout the country. Send manuscripts to the Editor.

Cooperative Guidance Research Among Smaller Schools

by GARY L. OLIVER

T oo little educational research is undertaken by counselors on a local level, especially in small schools. This need not be.

Small schools have at least two potent excuses for not undertaking research projects: (1) their already overburdened guidance counselors have too little time, and (2) the small number of students in any particular category seems to make their research efforts virtually worthless.

It is the opinion of this writer that a great deal of valuable research can be undertaken by smaller schools if several of them work cooperatively on a project of mutual concern. The following is an example of a joint project providing valuable data to the cooperating schools.

Schools W, X, Y, and Z were all relatively small schools located in the same section of the county. School X had a trained counselor on the staff. Although schools W, Y, and Z had no trained counselors, they did have principals who were interested in promoting guidance activities in their schools. The schools had a problem common to all of them. Several students each year went from each school to the Engineering College at the State

University. Approximately 25 percent of them failed academically within two years. At the suggestion of the counselor in school X, the other three schools agreed to launch a project which would not require an excessive amount of time on the part of any one person.

Each of the schools needed validity data on a predictive test of engineering aptitude. Although none of the four schools sent more than eight or nine students per year to the engineering college, the combined total usually averaged around 35

A long term study was planned and begun. It was decided that each school would give the Engineering and Physical Science Aptitude Test (EPSAT)¹ at the end of the first semester to all seniors enrolled in physics. This was to be done every year. The students who entered engineering college were kept track of and grades were requested from the college at the end of each semester grading period. The following expectancy tables were prepared² on the basis of the first two grading periods.

Table 1 can be used to estimate a student's chances of success during the first semester of engineering school. For example, students who score between 105 and

GARY L. OLIVER is Director of Guidance, Johnston Consolidated School, Johnston, Iowa. This study was completed while the writer was a member of the Academic Year Counseling and Guidance Institute, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

¹ Moore, B. V., Lapp, C. J., and Griffin, C. H. Engineering and Physical Science Aptitude Test, Psychological Corporation, 1951.

Froehlich, C. P. and Hoyt, K. B. Guidance Testing. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1959, 49–55.

| Point A | | 4, B=3, C=2, D=1 | |
|---------|--------|------------------|---------|
| Scores | .0-1.9 | 2.0-2.9 | 3.0-4.0 |
| 125-up | | 1 | 2 |
| 105-124 | 11 | 7 | 2 |
| 85 -104 | 14 | 9 | 2 |
| 65 - 8h | 3 | 3 | |
| 64-down | 1 | 1 | |

TABLE 1

Prediction of First Semester Engineering College Average from the Engineering and Physical Science Aptitude Tests on 1958 Graduates from Schools W, X, Y, & Z.

| PSAT Raw | .0-1.9 | 2.0-2.9 | 3.0-1.0 |
|------------------|-----------|---------|---------|
| Scores 125-up | | 1 | 2 |
| 105-124 | 2 | (1)** | 3 |
| 85 -104 | 2 | 10 | 3 |
| 65 - 84 | (2)* | 2 | |
| 64-down | (1)* 1 | | |

^{*}Students who have dropped from Engineering

TABLE 2

Prediction of Second Semester Engineering College Average from Engineering and Physical Science Aptitude Tests on 1958 Graduates from Schools W, X, Y, & Z.

124 on the EPSAT have about 9 chances out of 10 to do satisfactory work.

Table 2 gives even more information about a student's chances of success. Of the students who scored below 64 on the EPSAT, none completed a full year of satisfactory work.

By the end of the third grading period a new group of students from the four schools had completed their first semester in engineering school. Table 1 was then revised by adding these new data (see Table 1 revised). Each successive semester the appropriate tables were revised.

The cumulative nature of these tables makes them increase in predictive efficiency each successive year.

This study has been somewhat simplified, but it is a study which could easily be done by a few cooperating schools. In this case, more than one school was necessary so that a larger number of students would be included. The nature and quantity of the work overtaxed no one, and the results enabled each school to provide students with a better understanding of their chances of success in the college of engineering.

| Colleg Point | e Grade Average (A-1 | , B=3, C=2, D=1, | F=0) |
|------------------|-------------------------|------------------|----------|
| | .0-1.9 | 2.0-2.9 | 3-0-11-0 |
| Scores 125-up | | 3 | 5 |
| 105-124 | 2 | 1/4 | 6 |
| 85 -104 | 6 | 17 | 3 |
| 65 - 84 | 6 | 7 | |
| 64-down | l ₄ | 1 | |

Table 1 (revised)

Prediction of First Semester Engineering College Average from the Engineering and Physical Science Aptitude Tests on 1958 & 1959 Graduates from Schools W, X, Y, & Z.

It's harder to conceal ignorance than to acquire knowledge—

Arnold H. Glasow

Not a Career Day or an Industrial Exhibit: but a real

CAREER DISPLAY

by SARAH E. WILCOX

ALTHOUGH career days have been labeled inferior to other methods of vocational guidance, this method, with modifications, has many worthwhile features. The recent experience of the Charlotte, North Carolina, City Schools, and a number of local professional and civic organizations who participated in a career day display of vocations, seems to bear this out.

At the close of the Career-O-Rama, planners of the event requested opinion of the participants by questionnaires. Responses indicate that a majority thought the event worthwhile in the accomplishing of stated purposes of its sponsors: (1) to interest the community in providing vocational information for students; (2) to broaden students' concepts of vocational opportunities and to add to their information concerning specific vocations.

Design and Operation

The Career-O-Rama consisted of a large-scale display of vocational opportunities and current occupational information. The project was initiated and organized by the Charlotte City Schools, the Public Library, and Rotary and Altrusa Clubs. Members of Rotary and Altrusa contacted professional, business, and industrial associations to which they belonged, and interested the associations in preparing

displays showing allied career opportunities.

The displays consisted of pictures, models, charts, films, and demonstrations. They were arranged in booths set up in the exhibit hall of the public library. All booths were manned by representatives of the sponsoring vocational organizations. Invitations were issued to visit the displays during a four day period.

School officials scheduled high school classes for visits during school hours; the general public attended the display both during and after school hours. After an initial visit many students returned for further consultation with booth representatives. Some were accompanied by their parents on the second visit.



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In general, the plan was based on similar career conferences which have been held in Detroit and in Flint, Michigan, Charlotte's Career-O-Rama differed primarily in its method of sponsorship. In selecting sponsors for booths, the planners made every attempt to provide for a wide coverage of the community's vocational offerings. Emphasis was placed on presenting careers, not products or job opportunities in specific firms. Sponsorship of booths by professional, industrial, and business associations insured emphasis on careers in vocational areas rather than on jobs in specific companies.



Responsibilities Divided

Responsibility for planning the Career-O-Rama was divided between the sponsoring civic clubs and school personnel. The civic organizations had the major responsibility of putting on the display. This included publicity and public relations, the physical set-up, contacts with sponsors of booths, providing finances, and serving as hosts to the school groups and the general public.

School guidance personnel used the Career-O-Rama as an additional opportunity for vocational guidance in an established program. They and administrative officers consulted with the civic clubs; provided information to principals, teachers, and counselors; scheduled students for visits; prepared students for the event and conducted the evaluation of the experience.

During a four day period 56 booth displays were made available to more than 10,000 students, parents, and members of the general public. From 100 to 150 high school students were scheduled for visits in each of the school hours during the first three days.

Booths were manned by established members of business, industrial, and professional associations during eleven hours of each of the four Career-O-Rama days. Information about vocations on national, sectional, and local levels was given by means of individual and group consultation and through booklets and brochures.

One desirable by-product of the Career-O-Rama was the development of local vocational information that had not been available before the event. Another beneficial feature was the follow-up provided by several vocational groups. These

groups obtained the names of students who were particularly interested in a specific field and made follow-up meetings with leaders in the field available to interested young men and women.

Five Groups Evaluate

At the close of the Career-O-Rama a questionnaire concerning its value was presented to each of these groups: students, teachers, principals, counselors, and representatives of business, industry, and the professions. The questionnaires for each group differed as to form and content. All were unsigned. Data are reported separately for each group.

Responses to the questionnaire for high school students indicated that 46 to 51 per cent thought that the Career-O-Rama greatly increased their understanding of job possibilities. Thirty-seven to 39 per cent said that their understanding was increased somewhat. Nine to 12 per cent reported that their understanding improved a little.

Three per cent stated that they gained no benefit in understanding job possibilities.

Fifty-one teachers who accompanied groups on scheduled visits responded to questionnaires as follows: 26 indicated that their groups received a great deal of value from visits. Twenty-four said that their groups received some value. No teacher marked the categories "very little value" and "no All respondents described the behavior of their groups as more orderly, attentive, and indicative of desire to learn than disorderly, inattentive, or "carnival like." Fortysix of the teachers thought that the Career-O-Rama had a desirable effect on school-community relations.

Eighteen principals responded to a questionnaire which was sent out one week after the close of the Career-O-Rama. All eighteen responded "yes" to the question "Should the Career-O-Rama be repeated?" Ten principals thought it should be held annually; eight through bi-annually.





Of the 25 counselors affected, 21 worked primarily with junior high school students, four primarily with senior high school students. each of the secondary schools the counselors were professionally responsible for initiating a program of vocational guidance and for providing assistance in this area to the students on an individual basis. Twenty-four of the responding counselors thought that the Career-O-Rama was very worthwhile: one counselor thought it a waste of time. Within a two week period following the Career-O-Rama, 14 counselors had found an increased demand for vocational guidance on the part of students; three had an increased demand from parents. Counselors reported that the attitude of faculties toward the Career-O-Rama changed from one of indifference and mild enthusiasm to active and enthusiastic support.

On the final day of the Career-O-Rama the representatives of the 50 vocational areas involved in the Career-O-Rama were presented with questionnaires. During the following month 39 of the 50 questionnaires were returned. Of this number, all but three of the respondents considered their efforts to be successful as far as their own purposes were concerned. Approximately the same number considered the efforts successful from the students' standpoint. Twenty-eight of the respondents said that their organizations would be interested in supporting a booth in the future. No respondent refused support. Negative responses were caused by the respondent's inability to speak for his total organization.

The Display in Retrospect

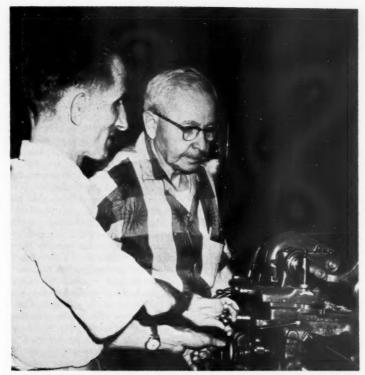
A display type of career day has many worthwhile features. This conclusion is based on observations by participants and on data derived from questionnaires. The following specific values are indicated: development of vocational information on a local level, community involvement in vocational guidance, increased demand for vocational counseling, increased interest on the part of parents, and increased support for this form of vocational guidance on the part of school personnel.

Youth Entering the Labor Force

Fact Sheet, Youth Entering the Labor Force is a recent 10-page release from the Bureau of Employment Security, U. S. Employment Security, U. S. Department of Labor.

The fact sheet gives information about the way youth is adjusting today, and the extent of the problem for the next few years. It lists some of the services which the U. S. Employment Service and affiliated state agencies can offer including cooperative arrangements with schools and other community agencies.





LATHE MANIPULATION: Sheltered workshop client on left is being instructed in machine operation.

Pre-Vocational Evaluation of the Mentally Retarded

by JEROME MENCHEL

THERE ARE THREE PHASES to be considered on a purely scientific basis among the activities of

prevocational evaluator for the mentally retarded young adult.

First, he must establish minimum requirements for performance that are to be expected. Second, he must determine by the same procedure, the specific attitudes, skills, and information to be incorporated in the optimum existing perform-

JEROME MENCHEL is Director of the Sheltered Workshop sponsored by the Maryland Society for Mentally Retarded Children, Greater Baltimore Chapter, Inc., in Baltimore Maryland. ance of these functions. Third, he must develop, with due regard to maturation and abilities of retarded young adults, a pre-vocational evaluation designed to produce the indicated knowledge and skills.

The individual in charge of organizing an industry-geared prevocational evaluation center must not only adopt the criteria of content selection but also must investigate for the type of components implied by them. This requires methods for the selection of work samples.

In some instances the methods are based upon practical reasons and judgment. Some of these methods approach the rigor of scientific investigation, as in the case of experimental procedures and those planned to discover the skills that are most useful in the performance of a particular job.

A job is always complex. It calls for a variety of abilities or aptitudes. Since it is impossible to make out a complete list of wholly independent abilities which can be separately measured and related to the requirements of the different jobs, the practical procedure is to analyze the job and to apply to its requirements the various means of discovering skills and aptitudes for it.

The analytical procedure is one of the most widely known of the methods of job analysis. It has been closely identified with the criterion of productiveness although it has been used in the selection of content in accordance with other criteria. Generally speaking, it consists of an analysis of the things people do to discover the skills functioning in these various activities.

There are three forms of the analytical procedure, all more or less

following the same pattern. first form is the "activity" analysis, the object of which is to discover the general kinds of activities engaged in by people of a given group or area and then to reduce these to specific activities. second is "job" analysis, which is the technique of activity applied to vocational operations. If anyone wishes to know what should be taught in operating a sewing machine, for example, an analysis would be made of what sewing machine operators actually do. paper is concerned with this particular form of the analytical procedure. The third form of this procedure is simply the use of the process of investigation to determine the elements of knowledge or the skills having general utility.

Job analysis consists of fact finding techniques applied to the work tasks under investigation. Therefore the first step in the procedure is establishing the area of human concern, the specific function, or specialized occupation to be investigated. The second step is breaking it down into more specific elements and selecting an appropri-



MACHINE EXPERIENCE: This client is engaged in coring of eye droppers in the sheltered workshop.

ate technique for collecting data about these various elements. Although drill press operation may be divisible into a number of jobs, depending upon the complexity and nature of work being performed, the jobs may be defined under the heading of an occupation.

The analysis of the occupation or the activity by the worker is made step by step by someone considered to be an expert with the specific job or activity. He lists his duties or operations that he performs, a job that requires the fitting of a part into its place may, for example, start out with (1) searching for, (2) finding, (3) grasping, (4) putting the part into its place.

After the first analysis has been made, the operation must be studied as a whole. In this study any existing waste motions can be eliminated upon discovery. evaluator must decide whether the work can be so placed that there is less searching, easier finding, quicker grasping, or moving over less distance. Such improvements will speed the operation and increase efficiency. The physical placement of the work is extremely important. If a part must be turned around before it can be put in place, it naturally takes longer to handle and becomes more tiring than when it is picked up in the position which is right for placing it accurately.

Fatigue is an important factor to



WEAVING WIRE FENCE: The "knuckling off" operation is being done under supervision.

be considered. Are all the motions being made that will produce the least fatigue? A well arranged workplace and good tools will help simplify body motion and thus make the work easier.

It has sometimes been asserted that the analytical method is "atomistic"—that is to say that it breaks operations, skills, and knowledge into such small elements that the real identity of the original process is lost.

Job analysis is always essential, the pertinent questions should always be these: What is the analysis for? Is it sufficient for the purpose? Job analysis yields results in the discovery of what is actually done on the job; knowledge and skills that workers actually use in performing their various operations.

NUGA Membership Totals

As of July 1, NVGA showed a membership total of 7,148, the largest constituent division of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. APGA membership had reached 11,449 at that date.

Should We Counsel Vocationally The Individual in Psychotherapy?

by PAUL B. BACHRACH

In his analysis of the relationship between personality dynamics and vocational counseling, Thompson1 points out that certain individuals seeking vocational counseling are actually in search of psychotherapy and, further, that these individuals may have no awareness of their basic motivations for seeking help.

This article is concerned with a special group of such individuals, those undergoing psychotherapy who simultaneously seek vocational counseling. The experiences of the writer in a college counseling bureau suggest that this group is

increasing in number.

This paper is intended to discuss the motivations for such application for counseling, to help identify such individuals, and to suggest reasons why such counseling often seems to be inappropriate. views expressed in the article are not commonly held by vocational counselors who generally support the thesis of the effectiveness of simultaneous therapy and vocational counseling.

Why Vocational Counseling?

Individuals undergoing psychotherapy apply for vocational counseling for reasons generally unrelated to the rational need for an appraisal of their vocational potential. In many cases, such applica-

PAUL B. BACHRACH is Counseling Psychologist, Bernard M. Baruch tion has not been discussed by the individual with his therapist so the latter frequently is unaware of his client's intentions. In general. these individuals are motivated to seek vocational counseling for one or more of the following reasons.

1. The reaching out for vocational help is, at times, an attempt by the individual to deny the real nature of his emotional difficulties. It is essentially a perseveration of his view and feelings that all he needs is help in getting the "right

kind of a job.

2. Sometimes an individual in therapy applies for vocational help when therapy has reached either a difficult stage or an impasse. In such a case, the application should be seen as an expression of a need for more or greater involvement with the individual's difficulties.

3. Such an application may be made when the individual is experiencing negative feelings towards the therapist. This, then, is essentially a move towards rejecting the therapist, an act of hostility, an attempt to replace the therapist with someone "more understanding of and sensitive to his needs."

4. An individual who has terminated psychotherapy without a basic resolution of his emotional conflicts may also seek vocational counseling. This type of case may reflect a reaching out for additional help as well as a denial of basic difficulties.

School of Business and Public Administration, The City College, New York, 1 Thompson, A. S., "Personality Dy-New York. The author expresses appreciation to Louis Long for his namics and Vocational Counseling. Personnel and Guidance Journal, Jancriticism of the original manuscript. uary, 1960.

5. An application for vocational counseling may be made as a result of an individual's realistic inability to relate to his therapist. In such a case, the individual actually is seeking help in breaking his relationship with his present therapist, rather than seeking vocational assessment.

Who Are Persons in Therapy?

Individuals in therapy who apply for vocational counseling generally do not share this fact with the counselor; nor have they communicated their intentions to seek vocational help to their therapist. Because of the applicants' need to conceal this fact, it is incumbent on the counselor to attempt to identify such individuals in the initial interview. Characteristics outlined below may be helpful in identifying these persons:

A. They are relatively at ease and comfortable as they sit in the chair. Legs are crossed, they frequently smoke and indicate that counseling is

not a new experience.

B. They verbalize rather freely. These people give you the feeling that they know what to do; they are rather experienced at this thing. Timing is good, they pace themselves well, they talk easily.

C. These individuals have learned the "vernacular of the trade." Such words as "conflict," "neurotic," "healthy," "feelings," "contradictions," and "spontaneous," are commonly

used.

D. In some cases, their feelings are fairly close to the surface and are relatively freely expressed as contrasted with the overcontrolled feelings of those uninitiated in psychological treatment.

This paper has thus far explored the motivation which impels individuals in therapy to seek vocational counseling and has suggested some characteristics which may prove helpful in identifying them. Attention now will be focused on reasons which seem to suggest that the acceptance of such persons for vocational counseling is not appropriate.

Vocational Emotional Assessment

Acceptance of persons in group 1 above for vocational counseling results in a perpetuation of their irrational belief and feelings that vocational indecision is the reason for their difficulties. Acceptance of such people for vocational counseling would appear to be a disservice to the applicants in that it reinforces their denial mechanisms.

To involve oneself vocationally with group 2 applicants results in a contamination of the therapeutic process at a critical stage. These stages of impasse must be worked out in therapy so that the individual can continue to move to the resolution of his conflicts. The most effective help which can be given these persons is to encourage them to return to the therapist to "work things out."

Similarly group 3 individuals ought not be dealt with vocationally but should be encouraged to return to therapy to resolve in treatment the negative feelings concerning which the individual complains. They should be helped to see that these feelings are generally an intrinsic characteristic of the therapeutic process and working them through with the therapist is an essential part of the therapy.

Group 4 individuals also should be helped to recognize the real nature of their problems. To focus on their vocational problems would appear to be focusing on symptoms rather than dealing with basic difficulties. Here again the most effective help consists of encouragement

Group 5 applicants raise a particularly delicate question. These individuals share, as a rule, with the vocational counselor the fact that they are or were in treatment. They typically adduce seemingly rational reasons for wanting to change therapists. A clear understanding of the nature of the therapist-client relationship is not easily arrived at even by an experienced psychologist. It would appear that if the individual has not discussed his feelings and attitudes with the therapist, the counselor might urge that this be done, i.e., suggest that the individual attempt to work this out by returning to his therapist. If these feelings persist over a considerable time the advisability of a consultation with another therapist might be explored. This consultation would presumably afford the individual an opportunity to explore the motivations for the desired change. The writer wishes to stress that the vocational counselor ought not to involve himself with such individuals unless there is a clear evidence to suggest that the relationship with the therapist has in effect been terminated. In only such a case would referral to another therapist be in order.

Concurrent Vocational Counseling?

One may ask whether there are any situations in which vocational counseling and therapy might be carried on concurrently. Theoretically such an arrangement might prove effective at some point in the terminal stage of therapy where the therapist might need a realistic appraisal of the individual's vocational strengths and weaknesses. Should the therapist sense this need, one can assume that he will make contact with the counselor. It is to

be noted, however, that such counseling should be restricted to the interpretation of tests and its significance for the world of work.

Similarly, a therapist may require at some point in his work a specific or general vocational assessment of an individual. Here, again, the assumption is that he will seek such an evaluation from the counselor.

Vocational Emotional Assessment

The writer has for several years attempted to assess vocationally individuals experiencing emotional difficulties. Too often, test results have reflected the distortions of attitudes and feelings which were at the base of these psychological problems. Interest tests, generally, proved much more informative as clinical clues than as valid vocational information.

For example, high social service scores on the Kuder frequently reflected a perception of the patient's need for help rather than a valid interest in helping others. Similarly, high computational scores reflected the patient's need for ordering his disordered self rather than a real interest in this type of work. Again, high scores in the music, art, and literary fields often suggested, among other things, unrealistic levels of aspiration, pointing out rather clearly the disparity between the real and the idealized self.

It is clear to this writer, at least, that such irrational feelings and attitudes need to be resolved before one can proceed to the vocational assessment of the real individual.

Unity of Treatment

Finally, the goal of therapy is, in a sense, to restore to the individual a sense of unity, wholeness, or integration. To the extent that he is treated as a "vocational problem" by the counselor and an "emotional problem" by the therapist, the divisiveness which is a source of his difficulties is perpetuated. One therapist working with one individual in one process would appear more conducive to the restoration to the individual of this sense of unity.

Blueprint for a

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING SERVICE in a State Rehabilitation Agency

by SY C. HERSTEIN

THE CALIFORNIA VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION SERVICE, a division of the California State Department of Education, now has on its rehabilitation service staff seven vocational psychologists.

The testing program is under the administrative responsibility of the Rehabilitation Service Consultant, who is a staff officer. Located in Sacramento, the Vocational Rehabilitation Service central office, he is responsible for coordinating the various aspects of the testing program. The actual supervision of the vocational psychologists is done by the various District Supervisors, in whose offices the psychologists work.

Nine other states¹ have psychologists attached to either their vocational rehabilitation agencies or to their state agencies handling the blind. But none, as far as can be ascertained, have a group of vocational psychologists specifically employed to set up and conduct a psychological testing program for the majority of clients seeking rehabilitation services.

Prior to June of 1958, most psychological testing done by the Vocational Rehabilitation Service was handled on a "contract basis." Outside private psychologists were employed on a fee basis to do the testing of Vocational Rehabilitation Service clients. Occasionally, a rehabilitation counselor trained in psychological testing was designated to do testing in a local or This method of district office. handling the testing process was not completely satisfactory in terms of time, quantity and quality, and cost of testing.

It was felt that by having our own staff of vocational psychologists, a more effective usage of psychological testing would be brought about.

The duties, qualifications, experience, and type of psychologists desired by the Vocational Rehabilitation Service was thoroughly reviewed by personnel analysts of the State Board of Personnel and by the Central Office Staff of the Vocational Rehabilitation Service. This

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¹Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Directory of State Professional and Personnel Divisions of Vocational Rehabilitation and State Agencies for the Blind, January, 1958.

resulted in a staff position of vocational psychologist and accompany-

ing duties and goals.

The vocational psychologists conduct a psychological testing service on both a group and individual basis in the various offices of the Vocational Rehabilitation Service. Their duties^a were divided as follows:

1. Psychological Testing Functions

a. Administer, score, and interpret the results of intelligence, aptitude, interest, achievement, personality, and other standardized and clinical tests including projectives.

 b. Develop qualified psychological facilities for testing more difficult cases where district facilities are inadequate.

c. Bring to the attention of the medical and psychiatric consultant indications of possible organic disturbances (by means of tests).

2. Training Functions

 Advise the Vocational Rehabilitation Counselor in the selection of tests and in their interpretation by means of "face to face" meetings and staff conferences.

 Train and supervise clerical personnel in branch and district offices in the administration and scoring of standard-

ized tests.

c. In conference with medical and psychiatric consultants, supervisors, and counselors, recommend tests which will help in understanding the problems of the client.

3. Administrative Functions

a. Recommend new tests satis-

factory for Vocational Rehabilitation Service usage.

 Review qualifications and reports of "contract psycholo-

gists."

c. Attempt to standardize, in a broad manner, and on a statewide basis the type of psychological testing report submitted to Vocational Rehabilitation counselors, its format, and kinds of tests used.

 d. Attempt to set up a standardized aptitude test battery that would be useful, efficient, and suitable for most Vocational Rehabilitation Service clients.

Those were the objects set up for the Vocational Rehabilitation Service testing program. Some of them have been achieved and others are in the process of achievement.

Now after a year of operating with a staff of vocational psychologists, what are the results? There has been no statistical or research evaluation of the program, except for numbers of tests given, types of tests used, number of people tested, However, it has been the opinion of those responsible for securing the psychologist positions and from some Vocational Rehabilitation counselors who are using the vocational psychologists' test reports that their own staff testing is more appropriate and more useful in terms of the types of clients they They find, also, that the handle. information test received "tailored" to their clients in terms of suggesting vocational potential, and in certain cases, modes of personality operation.

The program appears to be successful and the Vocational Rehabilitation Service will probably ask the legislature for additional vocational psychologists positions in their fu-

ture budget.

^{*}California State Personnel Board, Specification Sheet for Vocational Psychologist, #0835, July 17, 1959. (Changes made by author.)

THE MORE ABLE STUDENT

Described and Rated

by ERNEST O. BUHLER and EUGENE N. GUIRL

The More able students are a controversial minority these days. They are frequently stereotyped, often misunderstood, revered by some of their peers and feared by others. The public's picture of them is changing from one of the puny, bespeckled little pendant to a child who is happier, healthier, friendlier, smarter, more reasonable, and better adjusted than other children.¹

At no time in our national history has the discovery and development of the more able children been as important as it is today. Today everyone-especially the academically superior, the talented and creative, and those with superior leadership qualities-must be trained to lead and guide the nation in the way of life that utilizes the democratic values and individual initiative. In developing this leadership, George Counts and others have emphasized the need for equilibrium between scientific knowledge and effective leadership in the humanities.

In one of Pearl Buck's stories of Chinese life, Wong the Tiger says, "The thing to do when one kills a centipede is to crush its head and then its hundred legs are in confusion and they run hither and thither against each other and are harmless." If we neglect the superior children of this nation, America may find itself to be a nation with a hundred well trained legs but without a head that would make effective work of those legs.

James B. Conant makes frequent reference to the more able youth in his writings, and the National Defense Act of 1958 specifically refers to and is intended to find and train them.

Identification Imperative

It is the responsibility of the school and the nation to give the more able youth every opportunity to develop to his fullest in order that he may take his leadership role in society. But, before this can be effectively accomplished, we must understand who he is and how he is different from other children.

This article, based on a review of existing literature, attempts to determine and define the characteristics that best identify the more able student and to incorporate these characteristics into a comprehensive, yet concise and workable evaluative check list for school personnel. This is in accordance with Henry Winthrop's idea that "It would be well worth investing funds in a project devoted to the rigorous construction of such a standardized

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¹Dorothy Barclay, "The Challenge of the Gifted Child," New York *Times* Magazine, February 22, 1959, 46.

check list by psychologists and educators, and it could be of immediate use on a national scale."2

In developing such a check list it has been necessary to answer two questions. First, what do professional educators, congressmen, and the lay public mean when they say the "more able" student? Second, what evidence has been presented to substantiate the identifying characteristics of the more able? The authors have reviewed existing professional literature and have selected those characteristics and their definitions which are most often used in the identification of the more able students. These characteristics and definitions are listed below.

² Henry Winthrop, *Discovery of the Gifted Child*, Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic, May, 1959, 93.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MORE ABLE STUDENT

High Academic Achievement [1, 3-5, 7-10, 12, 13]. The more able student shows as much unevenness in subject matter abilities as do other children, but his overall grade point average is usually high and is the best single predictor of college success. He requires less detailed and fewer repeated instructions, often anticipating them. He works readily with symbols such as words and numbers, in place of direct experience and the actual objects.

Advanced Vocabulary and Reading Level [1, 3–5, 7–10, 12, 13]. The more able student has a large vocabulary which he uses easily and accurately. He retains what he has heard or read without much rote or drill. He can read books that are one to two years in advance of the rest of the class. He usually reads at an early age.

Expressive Fine Arts Talent [1, 4, 5, 7-10, 12, 13]. The more able student's wide range of interests stems from his vivid imagination. He is able to solve problems in aesthetic fields and can visualize actions and things from descriptions. He frequently creates original stories, plays, poetry, tunes, and sketches. He can use materials, words, or ideas in new ways.

Wholesome Personal-Social Adjustment [1, 4, 5, 7–10, 12, 13]. The more able student adjusts easily to new associates and situations. He is alert, keenly observant, and responds quickly. He possesses a keen sense of humor and incorporates suggestions from others into his own thinking and actions. His companions are often one or two years older but they recognize his superior ability in planning, organizing, and promoting. He also displays evidence of emotional stability in ordinary behavior.

Early Physical Competence [1, 3, 5, 8-10, 12, 13]. The more able student is characterized by his early physical development. He has a tendency to be taller, heavier, and has fewer physical defects. Not only does he enjoy outdoor games preferred by average children, but tends to excel

in these games. He usually enjoys superior health and, as a result, has fewer absences from school due to illness. He also possesses especially good eve-hand coordination.

Superior Intellectual Ability [1, 4, 7–10, 12]. The more able student exhibits superior ability in reasoning, generalizing, thinking logically, and comprehension. He is able to perform highly difficult mental tasks and to learn more rapidly and more easily than most children. This child also has a longer concentration span and is keenly aware of the processes of his environment.

Effective Independent Work [1, 7–10, 12, 13]. The more able student displays his competence for effective independent work by criticizing himself and modifying his behavior accordingly. He possesses superior insight into problems, is not easily influenced, and is less prone to change his mind once an opinion is formed. His effectiveness is also displayed by applying learning from one situation to more difficult situations.

Persistent Curiosity [1, 3, 7, 9, 10, 12]. The more able student displays a deep seated interest in some subject or field. In an attempt to gratify this insatiable curiosity he may display a dislike for rote memory and busy work. He also enjoys using encyclopedias, dictionaries, maps, globes, and other references.

Strong Creative and Inventive Power [1, 4, 5, 8, 10, 12]. The more able student possesses high-powered intellectual curiosity, imagination, and creativity. He has unusual power to see new structures and processes and to express his visions in speaking, writing, art, music, or some other form. His work has freshness, vitality, and uniqueness. An individual may create new ideas and substances or he may invent and build new mechanical devices. He sometimes runs counter to tradition and is continually questioning the status quo. He may do the unexpected.

Special Scientific Ability [1, 4, 5, 8, 10, 12]. The more able student with scientific talent will use the scientific method of thinking. He will employ scientific research methods and will grasp scientific concepts in short periods of time. He will display a curiosity of the natural world. He is not easily discouraged by failure or experiments or projects and will seek causes and reasons for things. He will spend much time on special projects of his own such as making collections, constructing radios, and making electronic computors.

High Energy Level [1, 7, 9, 10, 12]. The more able student displays a high level of energy. He keeps active by undertaking and completing task after task. He participates in various extra-curricular activities, holding leadership roles in many, and frequently concentrates on long range, unattainable and poorly defined goals.

Demonstrated Leadership Ability [4, 5, 10, 12]. The more able student displays an ability to help a group reach its goals. He often will improve

human relationships within a group and will achieve prominence by individual effort. He enters into activities with enthusiasm and is able to influence others to work toward desirable or undesirable goals. He can take charge of the group.

Well-Developed Mechanical Skills [4, 5, 10]. The more able student who possesses mechanical ability may be identified by unusual manipulative skills and spatial ability. He perceives a visual pattern complete with details, similarities, and differences. He excels on craft projects and is interested in mechanical gadgets, devices, and machines. He comprehends mechanical problems and puzzles and likes to draw plans and sketches of mechanical objects.

The above characteristics have been incorporated into a check list which the authors believe can be used by a school staff to identify the more able students. The check list presented below is intended not as an end product but rather as a guide to be modified and improved as experience warrants.

Name _____School ____ Age: Years ______Months _____I.Q. ____ Place a check mark () on the scale at a point where you think

CHECKLIST FOR IDENTIFYING THE MORE ABLE STUDENT

the pupil under consideration rates in the characteristics named. Please make your estimate in relation to all other pupils in this age group. TOW 9 3 4 HICH

| High academic achievement | LOW | 2 | 3 | 4 | HIGH |
|---------------------------------------|-----|---|---|---|------|
| Advanced vocabulary and reading level | | | | | |
| Expressive fine arts talent | | , | | | |
| Wholesome personal-social adjustment | | | | | |
| Early physical competence | | | | | |
| Superior intellectual ability | | | | | |
| Effective work independently | | | | | |
| Persistent curiosity | | | | | - |
| Strong creative and inventive power | | | | | |
| Special scientific ability | | | | | |
| High energy level | | | | | |
| Demonstrated leadership abilities | | | | | |
| Well-developed mechanical skills | | | | | |
| | | | | | |

In conclusion it can be said that quately identify the gifted. They existing intelligence tests inade- give high scores to students with sponge-type minds but fail to measure generative and explosive powers of the brain. As Dean Lindley Stiles of the School of Education. University of Wisconsin has said, "We do not know how to predict with accuracy such important factors as drive, persistence, inclination to work, patience, self-direction and discipline. The school should take the lead in identifying accurately the more able and in planning appropriate educational programs for them. The entire community should educate the more able child and parents should be given full information about abilities, interests, strengths and weaknesses that tests and counseling reveal. More able students should be taught by more able challenging creative teachers."

The foregoing description of characteristics of the more able student and the accompanying check list may help in this challenge. The most encouraging part of this report is that you can begin using it in your own classroom, today.

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Reflections on

Professional Life Space

by JAMES W. RUSSELL

Concepts such as "implimenting the self-concept," "reduction of anxiety," "self-actualizing," and the like, are useful in our thinking about counseling proc-

YONCEPTS such as "implimentesses and outcomes. More are ing the self-concept," "re- needed.

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In the area of portraying the way of life of the professional, new concepts are especially needed. The most efficient road to upward mobility tends to be through professional level education. The strength, security, and prosperity of a country depends to a considerable extent upon the quality of its professional people.

From the point of view of either the state or the individual, the study of this way of life is Better concepts lead to crucial. improved frames of reference for research. What about Lewin's concept of "life space?" Is not this of potential value to voca-

tional guidance research?

Identity with an occupation can be, and often is, carried to an ex-The physician becomes "doctor" for life. This identity appears to greatly effect self-esteem. expected status, and the like. the sense that one extends his concept of self into the realm of his occupation, it becomes part of his life space.

Although one extends his life space through identity with his occupation, he does it, even more so, by the extention of his realm of power through the equipment, services, and helpers that are often at the disposal of a scientist, physician, professionally trained business executive, or others of this

level.

This pertains even to the use of library services. Long years of schooling facilitate ability to understand and apply what one finds in journals and books. The use of libraries, however, goes with job for the higher level occupations.

It is not just a privilege, it is a necessity. For many following this way of life, this applies also to writing and publishing. life space is extended through this type of activity.

The professional person will have advantages for gaining wisdom and opportunity for self-expression and creativity. If some present day people holding jobs calling for this level of ability seem to show few signs of having profited from it in maturity, wisdom and in the extent to which they have moved in the direction of self-actualizing, this can be attributed more to history than to their potential or the opportunities of their occupation.

As each generation moves up in years of schooling completed, the benefits are reflected in their ability to serve as teachers of their children. Third generation professionals can be expected to have a big advantage over first and

seconds.

In conclusion, the professional person has opportunities for extending his life space over ideas, people, and equipment in a manner conducive to learning, self-expression, and enhancement of the pleasures and meaningfulness of The communication of this finding to young people trying to make decisions about their life's work is a challenge for those involved in attempting to inform young people about the professional way of life.

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The world is full of willing people—some willing to work, the rest willing to let them.—Robert Frost

Perennial Patchwork

by CLEMMONT E. VONTRESS

Most educators now agree that there is a definite place for organized guidance activities in the school; but what is yet to be resolved is the method, technique, or organizational plan that is most effective—and perhaps what is more important—administratively practical.

There is a multiplicity of student-centered activities going on in schools under the name of guidance. Some of them were purposely developed; others just happened. Many educators are still only "lukewarm" to the idea of guidance; others have "jumped on the band wagon" not because of any real interest in providing individualized services for the present day heterogamy of students, but because it was the most sophisticated, or in some cases, the most expedient thing to do.

These factors, in part, have contributed to the many different plans for organized guidance services in vogue today. These varied plans need to be scrutinized and appraised.

The Homeroom Approach

One plan which is used most widely is the organization of guidance activities through the homeroom [4]. It calls for the placing of a classroom teacher in a room with a group of from 25 to 40 or more students for a period of 10 to 40

minutes each day [2]. The students are grouped by grade, alphabet, or some other convenient classification. The teacher in charge usually is not trained in guidance, and in some cases, may not even be interested in the extra duty that has been assigned her.

The assigned duties vary, from school to school. The homeroom teacher may plan student programs, discipline students, confer with parents after school hours, collect money, read bulletins, organize committees, and do other such things as are assigned by the administration. In addition to these routine activities, she often is expected to counsel students concerning not only their educational problems, but their vocational, personal, and emotional ones as well.

It is apparent that such homeroom guidance is done more out of expediency than purposeful design. It is likely to be an uneven service at least, a subterfuge at worst. If guidance is to receive more than lip-service, a good, long look must be given the traditional homeroom guidance plan.

A major part of guidance consists of counseling, a face-to-face relationship requiring more privacy than is usually available in a homeroom setting. Moreover, counseling requires considerable professional training, a deep respect for individuals, and confidence in their capability of eventual self-direction. These qualifications cannot be accomplished by decree.

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Built-In Weaknesses

In addition to these elementary requirements, guidance takes time—more time than the homeroom teacher usually has in the hurried schedule of activities. It is inconceivable that the teacher in such an atmosphere can do an effective job either in group guidance or counseling, whether the period is 10 minutes or 60 minutes long.

Even if there is time for certain group guidance activities and semiprivacy for counseling, it is doubtful that every teacher can or wants to handle such activities, since she is primarily oriented to instruction in a field of her own professional

preparation.

An effective guidance program should include accurate and comprehensive records on every child [5], previous academic progress, health, family background, and work experiences. To be effective the cumulative records must be kept up to date and made available to other teachers in the building. The main classroom teaching demands of homeroom teachers often make comprehensive record keeping impossible. The physical arrangements often make the sharing of records unfeasible.

An assumption on which the homeroom guidance plan seems to be predicated is that all teachers are guidance workers and that all are guidance minded" [6]. This is, indeed, unwarranted. They must have a demonstrated acceptability to students, parents, and the school faculty. They must be trained to work with the special tools of their trade as are the English or the science teacher, or the coach. In addition, they must be able to cope with the many difficult and baffling personal problems of students without impairing their own personal mental health.

In many high schools, the homeroom has degenerated into a catchall for activities only remotely related to guidance [1], activities which do not have enough support to merit a regular place in the school curriculum. In this artificial setting the teacher may never get to know the student as she might if she had regular classroom or scheduled counseling contacts with him.

Many homeroom teachers, arbitrarily appointed, may not have received either pre-service or inservice training in counseling and guidance. Even with special training some teachers are still unable to do an acceptable job of counseling [5]. With a classroom teacher uncomfortable with guidance and counseling problems in the first place, students may be told to "Look it up in the library" or "Come back after 3:30." This help may be too little or too late.

If the homeroom guidance program has degenerated into attendance taking [1], would it not be better to eliminate it entirely and reapportion teacher time? By so doing, teaching effectiveness would be improved by allowing the teacher adequate time to perform the duties for which she is hired. It is not the purpose here to outline procedures to carry out administrative routines: but it is the purpose to encourage administrators to take the homeroom burden off teachers and leave guidance services to those who are interested in and qualified to offer them.

Competence Needed

Each school should first of all decide on the guidance services to be rendered and then appoint staff according to their competencies to render such services [3]. Selected teachers who are guidance minded and trained for the work could be released one or two periods each day to do an organized and effective job in the area. If those selected do not already have adequate training for the job, an inservice program should be initiated at once. It is time to determine priorities among guidance needs and settle down to meeting them. This probably will eliminate the perennial patchwork of homeroom guidance.

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Another Look at

The Pseudo-Vocational Problem

by ROGER A. MYERS

In a recent issue of the journals, Bachrach¹ has pointed out a problem of interest and consequence to college counselors. His insightful description of the pseudo-vocational problem provides a concise picture of a syndrome that has caused frustration and discouragement in many of them.

The symptoms which characterize the pseudo-vocational problem include lack of involvement in the counseling relationship, affectless

verbalization, self-alienation, limited social life, stereotyped family relationships, general planlessness and goallessness, feelings of loneliness and despair, and tendencies to withdrawal techniques. Bachrach suggests that these symptoms indicate fairly involved psychological problems and points out that attempts to treat them as vocational or educational problems usually result in focusing on symptoms while permitting the basic difficulties to become fortified and internalized. The article concludes with a prescription for counselors which states, "The identification of such students and their expeditious referral to appropriate psychological

¹Bachrach, P. B. "The Pseudo-Vocational Problem," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1959-60, 8, 93-95.

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or psychiatric agencies remains an important aspect of their work."

The purpose of this paper is to suggest the possibility of accepting Bachrach's premises while rejecting his conclusion. There is little question about the validity of his observations of the kind of student described; however, the efficacy of "expeditious referral" as the preferred counselor behavior in such cases deserves a second look. In taking this second look, the following points merit consideration.

1. Adequate facilities for extensive psychotherapy are seldom available. Where colleges are located away from heavily populated areas, private psychotherapists and community clinics are scarce and overworked. Where psychological or psychiatric clinics exist on a college campus, they tend to exclude this kind of student in favor of those who are in more extreme stages of psychological distress and/or more fruitful from the standpoint of experience for therapists-in-training. Frequently there are no "appropriate psychological or psychiatric agencies" to which such students can be referred.

2. Such referrals are seldom expeditious. Even in situations where adequate facilities do exist, getting such students to make use of them is difficult. The nature of their symptoms leads them to interpret the referral as rejection and further evidence for their feelings of loneliness and hopelessness. The characteristic lack of involvement which they demonstrate makes it extremely unlikely that they would

accept the relatively demanding conditions of extensive psychotherapy. In addition, the lack of any crises in their situations makes it difficult to convince parents, faculty members, and administrators that psychotherapy is indicated.

3. Though they are only symptomatic, the problems of vocational and educational planning are salient ones for these students. Problem solving techniques learned in attacking these problems might well be generalized to the eventual improvement of their total well-being. However, counselors become frustrated when they realize that they cannot incite these students to problem-solving behavior. adopting a frame of reference alternate to the one Bachrach suggests, it is possible to view a counselor's frustration as stemming less from the peripheral nature of the student's problem than from his own poverty of techniques for dealing with it. The fact that a counselor cannot apply the usual quanta of interest tests and occupational information to advantage in such problems is not conclusive evidence that their solution is beyond his proper role.

The writer is in complete agreement with Bachrach's view of the importance of being alert to the syndrome he has described. However, the position taken here is that counselors are frequently in the best position to be helpful in such cases. The fact that they seldom really are helpful, argues for more inventive counseling and more imaginative research rather than more expeditious referrals.

More will be accomplished, and better, and with more ease, if every man does what he is best fitted to do, and nothing else.—Plato

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

State by State

by CHARLES R. FOSTER and JAMES DUNGAN

In view of the current importance attached to vocational guidance, and in view of the significance of adequate occupational information in career planning, it is imperative that educators review their handling of the occupational information service.

Recognizing that reports on the actual extent of the occupational information offerings have been few and far between in recent years, the writers undertook to make an impromptu survey of what the states currently are doing. Inquiries were sent to the chief state school offices in all 49 states; responses were obtained from all of them. The inquiry letter follows:

Dear Mr. .

In connection with the preparation of some material dealing with the teaching of occupational information in the public schools, I have been requested to secure some information. Would you do me the favor of having the person on your staff who is most informed on such matters answer the following two questions for me?

- To what extent are courses in occupations now being offered in the public schools of your state?
- To what extent is occupational information made available to students by other means (such as units in social studies courses?)

Charles R. Foster is Assistant Dean, College of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida. Some picture of the general scope of activity now going on is what we are interested in. We realize that a much more specific questionnaire study might need to be made, perhaps by an agency such as the United States Office of Education, for complete information. Your cooperation will be most appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

The purpose of this article is to provide brief summaries of what the

states reported.

By briefing the answers of the state school officials replying to the questions, it is possible to reveal more concretely the present situation in the offering of occupational information. This follows, by geographic districts and states. reader must remember that these are impressions, estimates, and opinions, mixed with some specific facts. But they can be helpful as suggesting general conditions and trends. Italics are ours. exact language of the report is given, it is in quotes. The rest is condensed, abbreviated, and selected by the writers.

NEW ENGLAND STATES

Connecticut

Occupational information units are found in English, Social Studies in from 30 to 40% of the schools; in separate group guidance courses in 20 to 25%; elsewhere handled mainly through counseling.

Maine

Has 65 courses in occupations in the secondary schools: some 50 units in occupations are taught in group guidance programs.

Massachusetts

Out of 247 high schools, only about 10 offer occupations courses. Occupational information "available on a large scale" in other subject matters areas, especially in Civics at 9th grade, Problems of Democracy at 12th grade levels. At junior high level, found in organized courses called Group Conference, Orientation, and Group Guidance. Through "excellent programs" of guidance in many secondary schools, much is said to be accomplished through individual counseling.

". . . many of the schools are doing a great deal in the mathematics and science fields as regards providing occupational information."

A few junior high schools offer courses in occupations at the eighth grade level.

New Hampshire

Occupation courses are few. Such information often handled in courses such as Social Problems. "but . . . inclusion of such material largely depends upon the background of the specific teacher concerned." Career Days in some schools.

Rhode Island

Courses in occupations are used. "quite extensively." Occupational information found to some extent in allied courses.

Vermont

"Almost all our students experience a unit in occupational information during their secondary school social studies program." In about half the schools, full-time guidance director handles occupational information services. smaller schools, "it is very common for the high school principal to maintain a file of occupational information."

In 1956-57 only 96 pupils in two high schools were enrolled in an organized occupations course.

MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES

New Jersey

"... in the larger districts where they have more guidance personnel available, the occupations program is presented as a course meeting once or twice a week, taught by members of the guidance staff." Elsewhere, occupational information, handled as a unit in either English or social studies.

New York

In a relatively few schools, some elective courses are given to aid students in career and educational planning. Separate courses in occupational information as such are "the exception rather than the rule."

The state is encouraging an occupational information unit, specifically "recommended by the New York State syllabus for Citizenship Education 9, which is a course required of all high school freshmen." Varies from one week to ten weeks.

"This is an area, however, which the Bureau of Guidance is stressing and it is our hope that these units presented for a longer period of time will become the accepted procedure in most of the schools of the state."

Pennsylvania

In the reply from Pennsylvania the respondent said: "We do not have a breakdown of occupations being taught as units in various subject fields as contrasted with definite courses in occupations."

"Actually 44.5% of all the graduates are being offered some organized occupational information... Of 996 secondary schools, 82% maintain an occupational file for the use of students. In many schools this . . . is assembled in a specific section of the library."

Occupational information is taught mainly in ninth and twelfth grades, but the occurrence by grades is as follows: 7th, 21%; 8th, 31.3%; 9th, 68.3%; 10th, 34.4%; 11th, 42%; 12th, 66.2%.

SOUTH ATLANTIC STATES

Delaware

Follows in principle a "developmental guidance program" now established in 23 out of 30 junior high schools. Reports "many schools" organizing field trips to industry, use of business and industrial leaders as consultants, and social studies units on occupational information in the senior high schools.

Florida

Organized formal courses are "relatively rare." Greater activity in terms of six or eight week units on occupational information, in other courses. "The junior high schools in particular are doing something and would like to do more."

Georgia

Only a few schools offer courses in occupational information. Estimate more than half the schools "do something" in area of including occupational information through units in other courses.

Maryland

Many schools offer courses in occupations at ninth grade level. Other schools use units in social studies—practice is "fairly wide spread."

North Carolina

Has been conducting a survey to determine facts of the situation. Meanwhile "we can say that a large number of our schools do provide this information either in special courses or in units in other courses." Limited number have courses in occupations.

South Carolina

About six per cent of schools have a one semester course in occupations (in ninth grade). Eighty per cent of the schools offer occupational information through one or more of the following:

- Courses in psychology, economics, social studies or vocational education.
- Occupational information file.
 (A model file of this type was developed cooperatively with the University of South Carolina.)
 "Approximately 10% of our schools have developed a similar file."
- 3. Library. "Approximately 30% of our schools have adequate occupational information in the library."
- 4. Group guidance. "Many schools teach occupational information through group guidance units.

 One county has organized a group guidance plan for every high school in the county."
- Vocational education classes. "Some occupational information is given."

Virginia

Very few schools offer occupational information courses "as such."

Most schools offer occupational information through units in English or social studies.

West Virginia

About 25 per cent of the high schools offer *courses in occupations*. The others offer such information "by other means."

EAST SOUTH CENTRAL STATES

Alabama

At present not offering courses in occupations . . . "Considerable occupational information" given in

the regular courses.

". . . the most specific information is being given to high school students through Career Days. Better still, many of our schools are giving career emphasis throughout the entire year with a Career Day as a climax to this emphasis."

Kentucky

"Occupations as a course have a very minor place in the curriculum of Kentucky schools." "Perhaps it would be a little more accurate to say that one or two of the larger school systems include occupations in group guidance classes, but not a course in occupations as such."

Unit approach through social studies and other courses being encouraged. Schools with adequate homeroom periods are including it "as part of group guidance during

the homeroom period."

Mississippi

No specific courses in occupations were reported last year. However, in Jackson and Meridian senior high schools "a group approach to various guidance problems is provided in courses . . ." Some credit given, but is over and above the 16 units usually required. At the tenth grade level in Jackson, Occupations and Careers by Greenleaf is used in one semester.

Large majority of the schools do make "some organized effort at providing occupational information." Units in social studies at 9th and 12th grade levels are customary; widespread also is use of home room programs for purpose.

Tennessee

Other than occupational information as provided in the cooperative part-time distributive education courses and the cooperative and allday courses in the trades and industry area, such courses do not

appear to be offered.

Career days and "rather limited occupational information available through 'homeroom' programs just about constitute what is being done in this area, at least to any appreciable degree." Matter is under study through curriculum development studies now in progress.

EAST NORTH CENTRAL STATES

Illinois

State reports from 601 out of public secondary schools (1957-58) showed courses in occupational and related information provided fairly well or exceptionally well in 123 schools; provided exceptionally well or fairly well in units (about 6 weeks) in 205 schools; short units of about a weeks' duration provided exceptionally well or fairly well in 246 schools. "Exploratory courses." Career Days, supervised work experience, and informal or organized home room activities were also varying degrees. reported in Career Days reported as given fairly well or exceptionally well in 355 schools.

Indiana

"The public schools of Indiana give consideration to orientation and study of occupations in practical arts courses and by the directors of guidance of the individual schools. A course in occupations, as such, is not offered." Considerable guidance in occupations given "both individually and collectively."

Michigan

No specific information, school by school, on offering of courses in occupations. Information lacking on extent of offering through other units. In "the majority of our secondary schools having guidance programs . . . one of the services is the provision of this information to individual students by counselors."

Ohio

Thirty-five per cent of Ohio's public schools "will offer at least one semester in occupations."

"The occupational information found in the social studies courses is very limited."

Wisconsin

Courses in occupations seldom offered. "Practice is rather wide spread" of offering such information in core, multiple-period classes, in social studies or orientation classes, and home rooms.

WEST NORTH CENTRAL STATES

Iowa

Seven schools have a one-year course in occupations. Sixty-eight have a one-semester course.

Two hundred and four schools have a section of a social studies course devoted to guidance. Considerable attention to displaying and promoting occupational information materials.

Kansas

Few courses in occupational information, mostly in the larger schools. In these larger schools are 25 per cent of the students; "in most of these schools this course is required of all tenth grades but in a few cases, they are elective social science courses."

"Occupational information is made available to all students attending schools having organized programs of guidance services. This includes some 70,000 students attending 280 secondary schools in the state."

Minnesota

Most schools offer units in occupations, 9th grade, and again either in the eleventh or twelfth grade. Units vary in length—majority of them based on state provided publication.

Very few separate courses in occupations. Effort made to encourage subject teachers to use occupational information in relation to their class work. "This is done through the use of investigative themes, research papers, etc."

Missouri

Separate courses are few. Guidance counselors do some work in this field; some occupational information is given in general exploratory courses.

Nebraska

Summarized as follows (report from 322 schools two years ago):

| Special course: | Percentage |
|---|------------|
| Educational-Vocational | 16 |
| Personal-Social | 10 |
| Special unit in an aca- demic course | 37 |
| Organized homeroom program | 14 |
| Organized group guid- ance program | 23 |

North Dakota

No specific courses. Provision made for occupational information in orientation courses and such courses as "problems of democracy, distributive education, and general business training." Provision of occupational information in school libraries encouraged.

In 1957, 185 schools offered an orientation course, including five weeks' consideration of occupations, to 3,783 students. Usually given at freshmen level. Monthly bulletins provide considerable emphasis to occupational guidance.

South Dakota

Information inadequate with regard to extent of courses in occupations, also with regard to extent of occupational information units in other courses.

WEST SOUTH CENTRAL STATES

Arkansas

In most of the schools having reimbursed guidance programs, occupations course (one semester, one-half unit), is taught at the ninth grade level. In general, first six weeks of course deals with study of self; second six weeks with world of work; third six weeks with applying for, getting, and succeeding on the job.

Quite a number of schools have second course for juniors or seniors wishing "to study an occupational field a little more thoroughly."

Many schools not having reimbursed guidance programs have short units on occupational information in civics or other social studies courses.

Louisiana

Few schools offering occupations course; trend "seems to be away from it." Occupational information provided as part of the guidance program. "Some schools still offer occupational information as special units in social studies courses." Career Day programs on the increase.

". . . a course in occupations may be offered at the eighth grade level as a part of the social studies program. A few schools are still offering this course, but the trend seems to be away from it. This is probably the result of the development of the guidance program in our schools, which provides occupational information to students as a part of the guidance program."

Oklahoma

Information limited. Some schools offer occupations courses; some include information as unit in other courses.

Texas

In the 142 high schools having distributive education curricula, occupational information is included "for preparing a student for a successful career in a retailing, wholesaling, or service selling occupation."

Many schools, otherwise, include occupational information in the general curriculum; many counselors have "very complete reference libraries" on occupations. Many have regularly scheduled career days.

MOUNTAIN STATES

Arizona

State has 85 high schools. Latest figures show 12 have unit courses in occupations; 22 integrate it within group guidance courses. Forty-eight maintain file of current occupational information; 45 have library shelf or section on same. Twenty-four have career day programs.

Colorado

Approximately half the high schools in the state offer courses in occupational information. Information not available as to extent of offering through units in other courses.

Idaho

Few courses as such. Many 9th grade level courses in orientation include occupational information in a four to six week unit of work.

Occupational information also included in many other courses—separate library sections devoted to occupational information and use by students encouraged.

Montana

Offering tabulated as follows:

nature of career opportunities in world of work and industry. Individual counseling available in about 40 per cent of the schools. Career days in about half the high schools.

Utah

Quick survey shows approximately half the schools feel they have occupational information instruction "in one form or another" in the social studies classes. Only four to six schools have formal class in occupational information.

| | Size School | Number offering Occupations | | er using ibject Areas† |
|---------|--------------|--------------------------------|-----------|---------------------------|
| Schools | (enrollment) | Courses* | 9th grade | 11th or 12th |
| 94 | 0-99 | 27 | 20 | 33 |
| 44 | 100-199 | 6 | 14 | 22 |
| 18 | 200-399 | 4 | 9 | 14 |
| 17 | 400-up | 7 | 5 | 12 |

Ohiefly taught at 9th grade level.

† Chiefly in 9th grade social studies or in 12th year civics. Limited offerings in other subject areas incidental in most schools.

Nevada

Offering tabulated as follows:

- Two of the 36 high schools in Nevada offered occupations courses.
- Twenty-nine high schools provided occupational information through units in other courses.
- Twenty-three high schools maintained an occupational information file.
- Twenty-six high schools reported an organized library of occupational and educational information.
- Ten high schools made occupational surveys of their community.
- Twenty-eight high schools provided special activities such as career programs, college days, films, etc.

New Mexico

High schools conduct units on

"The survey shows that much occupational and vocational information is available in both the libraries and the counselors' offices."

Wyoming

Occupational classes to a very limited extent. Provided largely through individual counseling, occupational information materials in libraries, career days.

PACIFIC STATES

Alaska

Courses in occupations are taught in several high schools. Anchorage has a semester course as an elective. Information not available on extent of coverage as units in other classes; some 9th grade English classes definitely include such units in their programs.

California

Trend is seen as away from separate courses, in direction of including self-appraisal and occupations in such courses as social studies and "senior problems."

Available through counseling, career days, bulletin boards, and school clubs organized around vocational interests. Many classroom teachers are seen as making effort "to relate their subjects to the world of work, showing the application of English, science, etc., to specific jobs."

Oregon

Probably not more than half a dozen schools offering separate course in occupations. In revised social studies program, 1956, new curriculum publication entitled Group Guidance in Oregon Secondary Schools included one of the nine units (Unit IV) entitled "Choosing Your Career," essentially a unit on occupational information. Utilization of this unit rests with the individual school.

Washington

Tabulated as follows, for 291 schools:

| Subject Area | Vocational Guidance | Orientation | Family Life Education | Personal Adjustment |
|---|------------------------|-------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| Separate course | 32 | 63 | 48 | 17 |
| Unit within course | 123 | 91 | 135 | 104 |
| Courses most often listed: | | | | |
| English | 37 | 46 | | |
| Social Studies | 36 | 20 | 26 | 19 |
| Home Economics | 16 | | 111 | 29 |
| Physical Education | | | 19 | 33 |
| Home Room | | 12 | | |
| Indication of some coverage at a grade level, | | | | |
| but no special course | 55 | 56 | 24 | 31 |

Occupational Outlook Report Series

A ll of the occupational information in the 1959 Occupational Outlook Handbook is now available in a set of 89 separate reprints. In all they cover 600 occupations and 30 major industries: nature of work, employment outlook, training and qualifications required, and earnings and working conditions. Prices range from 5¢ to 20¢.

The reports are designed for use by: students and others interested in a particular field of work; counselors who want copies of occupational or industrial reports to lend to persons interested in specific fields; teachers who want publications on career opportunities in fields of work related to their subjects; schools, counseling organizations, and libraries needing many copies of reports on industries important in their communities; and industry, labor, or professional organizations who wish to keep the public informed about opportunities in their fields.

Counselee Attitude Toward Counseling

by STANFORD H. GLAZER

T is difficult to tell what counseless really think about the services they receive at a university counseling bureau. An investigation by the staff¹ of the Educational Counseling Center at Wayne State University found some of the answers.

Three basic questions were asked in the questionnaire about students feelings toward services rendered:

(1) What are the overall feelings of the students toward services and treatment accorded them?

(2) What perception do they have toward results of counseling?

(3) What tools and techniques used in the "counseling process" influenced their feelings?

Selection of Sample

The staff in selecting students for inclusion in the sample were particularly anxious to eliminate, as much as possible, those who might provide a "halo effect." A previous attempt to have counselees evaluate services immediately upon completion of counseling resulted in all of the individuals rating the counseling service as "very satisfactory." Three criteria were established for inclusion in the sample:

(1) The counselee must have had the last interview sometime prior to August 31, 1958, and that his file still be in the active file (retained for five years).

(2) The counselee must have had two or more interviews.

(3) Some testing must be included as a part of his counseling process.

Method of Study

The first 500 students meeting these criteria were selected on the basis of alphabetical listing of their last name. Five hundred questionnaires were sent out and 118 were returned by the cutoff date of March 1, 1960. No attempt was made to contact those students who did not return their questionnaire.

A questionnaire was designed to gain an estimate of counselee attitude toward the questions indicated above. Prime consideration was given to these items which might discriminate a counselee's feelings toward "advice-giving," as measured by specifics, and "counseling," as measured by increased self-understanding. Ample space was provided for expression of personal opinion.

The survey sought to measure counselee-attitude and, as a consequence, no attempt has been made to report the statistical significance of responses. The following tables and comments are presentations of the expressed opinions of counselees and the reactions by staff to these opinions.

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¹Persons participating in this study were: Marybelle Boyle, Angeline Pappas, Robert King, Michael Tucci, and the writer.

TABLE I

Counselee-Expressed Satisfaction With Counseling Service

| Degree | Number | Percentage of Total |
|-------------------|--------|------------------------|
| Very satisfied | 56 | 47.45 |
| Satisfied | 47 | 40.70 |
| Dissatisfied | 8 | 6.77 |
| Very dissatisfied | 3 | 2.54 |
| No comment | 3 | 2.54 |
| TOTAL | 118 | 100.00 |

Table 1 reflects overall feelings of satisfaction toward the service rendered. Approximately 90 per cent (or 103 of the 115¹ replying to this question) indicated overall feelings which were to the positive side of the scale ("very satisfied" or "satisfied"). Fifty-six of the 115 (about 50%) expressed feeling of "very satisfied."

¹Three "no comments" were dropped from the total.

TABLE II
Reason for Counselee Satisfaction

| | (Very Satis- fied) | | Group III (Dissatisfied) | Group IV (Very Dissatis- fied) | Total |
|---|--------------------------|----|-----------------------------|---|-------|
| Better understanding of in- | | | | | |
| terests and abilities | 38 | 28 | None | None | 66 |
| Assisted in changing voca- | | | | | |
| tional or educational goal | 20 | 14 | None | None | 34 |
| Assisted in changing curric- ulum with greater satis- faction | | 7 | None | None | 17 |
| No direct decision, but | | , | 2.10110 | 2.0116 | 1, |
| better self-understanding | 23 | 21 | 1 | None | 45 |
| Total | 91 | 70 | 1 | 0 | 162 |

Table II summarizes counselees expressed reasons for satisfaction. "Better Understanding of Interests and Abilities," and "No Direct Decision, But Better Self-Understanding" can be regarded as essentially "counseling" items (development of self-understanding), while "Assisted in Changing Vocational or Educational Goal," and "Assisted in Changing Curriculum with Greater Satisfaction" were regarded as "action" items (change of outer course of action).

The ratings of Groups I and II strongly suggest that the counselees perceived greatest satisfaction from the development of better self-understanding and knowing more about themselves (interests and abilities). This implies that "counseling" rather than "advice-giving" service is being provided. A third of the responses in Group I and approximately 28 per cent of the replies in Group II indicate a "direct action change" resulted from the counseling contact.

Table III
Overall Feelings of Counselee Toward Treatment

| | Group I (Very Satisfied) | Group II (Satisfied) | Group III (Dissatis- fied) | Group IV (Very Dissatisfied) |
|----------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Very Satisfied | 45 | 31 | 2 | 1 |
| Satisfied | 9 | 14 | 3 | 1 |
| Dissatisfied | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| No Opinion | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 |
| Total | 56 | 47 | 8 | 3 |

The results of Table III strongly suggest that counselees were favorably impressed with the treatment accorded them by the staff of the Educational Counseling Center. The great majority of both Groups I and II indicated that they were "very satisfied" with the treatment given them.

Table IV shows counselees reactions toward the tools and techniques used in the counseling proc-These ratings indicate that counselees perceive those tools and techniques as involving solutions to questions as the most helpful. This statement is predicated on the fact that the largest number of responses falling in the "favorable" categories related to the specifics, "Discussion of Test Results," and "Counselor's Ability to Answer Questions." A large number of the replies, 50 in Group I and 33 in Group II, suggested that the counselor had been helpful in assisting in the development of a better self-understanding. It was somewhat surprising to note the large number of responses which indicated "No Opinion" on the use of the Vocational Information Library. This suggests that a large percentage of counselees do not use the material. Those who

did use it, however, indicated "favorable" feelings in a ratio of approximately 2: 1 for Group I and 3: 1 for Group II.

Summary of Findings

The results of this investigation raise several factors for staff consideration:

A. The overwhelming majority of counselees responding to the questionnaire viewed both the service and the treatment accorded them as "very satisfactory" or "satisfactory."

B. The staff of Center provides "counseling" service as measured by concepts of self-growth and development. Approximately 30 per cent of the replies indicated, also, that a direct action change had resulted from the counseling experience.

C. The counselees further suggest that they found those tools and techniques dealing with specifics (test results and answers to questions) of great assistance. A large number indicated, also, that the counselor had helped them in developing a better self-understanding.

D. A large percentage of counselees apparently did not make use

 ${\it TABLE~IV} \\ {\it Counselee's~Feelings~Toward~Tools~and~Techniques~Used~in~Counseling~Process}$

| | Very Helpful | Helpful | No Opinion | Little Help | No Help |
|--|-----------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|------------|
| Group I- | -Very S | atisfied | | | |
| Discussion of test results | 29 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Vocational library information | 4 | 9 | 19 | 2 | 5 |
| Counselor's ability to answer ques- | 29 | 20 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| Counselor's ability to assist you in developing better self-understand- | 27 | 20 | 2 | 1 | U |
| ing | 28 | 22 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| TOTAL | 90 | 76 | 23 | 5 | 5 |
| Group | II—Sat | isfied | | | |
| Discussion of test results | 17 | 25 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Vocational library information | 5 | 10 | 23 | 3 | 2 |
| Counselor's ability to answer ques- | | | | | |
| tions | 17 | 25 | 0 | 4 | 1 |
| Counselor's ability to assist you in developing better self-understand- | | | | | |
| ing | 14 | 19 | 6 | 6 | 0 |
| TOTAL | 53 | 79 | 29 | 15 | 3 |
| Group 1 | III—Diss | atisfied | | | |
| Discussion of test results | 0 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 1 |
| Vocational library information Counselor's ability to answer ques- | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| tions . | 0 | 6 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Counselor's ability to assist you in developing better self-understand- | | o | | • | 1 |
| ing | 0 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 |
| TOTAL | 0 | 11 | 5 | 9 | 4 |
| Group IV- | -Very D | issatisfied | | | |
| Discussion of test results | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| Vocational library information | .0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| Counselor's ability to answer ques- | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Counselor's ability to assist you in developing better self-understand- | | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| ing | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 . | 1 |
| TOTAL | 0 | $\frac{-}{2}$ | 3 | 5 | 2 |
| IOTAL | 0 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 2 |

of the Vocational Information Library. Those who did use it, however, found it helpful. A previous survey made by staff strongly tends

to support this contention.

This evaluation provides some encouragement and a continuing challenge.

Can Cardiacs Work?

by LOUIS J. CANTONI

In 1959, according to the American Heart Association, heart and circulatory diseases took 877,000 American lives. Thus heart and related ailments accounted for more deaths than all other causes combined.

It is estimated that at least 10,000,000 Americans have cardiac conditions, resulting in a work loss of 69 million man-days annually. This lost time represents more than a billion dollars in unearned income.

Conference Recommendations

Can cardiacs work? What can be done to conserve years of investment in educational preparation and job skills? In November, 1959, at a statewide conference of the Michigan Heart Association held at Wayne State University in Detroit, several discussion groups addressed themselves to these questions. Following are key thoughts and recommendations that came out of the day's session:

1. Vocational rehabilitation should begin at the time of diagnosis, not after a person's medical problem has been solved. This points up the need for (1) guidance services in schools, and (2) rehabilitation services from employers and community agencies, both public and private.

2. Medical and vocational rehabilitation can be implemented not only in large urban rehabilitation centers where work capacity may be determined quite readily, but also in general hospitals and by private physicians and school and community health and guidance personnel. Whenever feasible, the rehabilitation process should be initiated and carried out where the patient or client is. The majority of those who have heart disease can be served adequately by their family doctors if the doctors will give selective placement agencies an evaluation of patients' functional capacity.

3. People with cardiovascular whether homemakers. farmers, office or factory workers, should know the energy requirements of various tasks. should be able to relate calorie per minute expenditures on various kinds of jobs to the severity of their own heart conditions. Work simplifications units, such as that sponsored by the Michigan Heart Association at Wayne State University. help cardiac housewives to know the energy requirements of various tasks in the home. Homemaking classes, in which non-cardiac husbands are also welcome, cover such topics as body mechanics, kitchen work, cleaning, and laundry.

4. A graded activity program, incorporating both physical and occupational therapy, aids the return to maximum functioning. The place for the inception of such a program is the hospital.

5. Ultimately, the best work tolerance test is a time test with opportunity to experience the de-

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mands of various assignments. Graded exercises stimulate collateral circulation so that new coronary arteries feed blood to the

heart.

6. When a worker might be placed on a physically demanding job, it is useful to have an impartial estimate of his ability to work. Cardiac work classification, for the 20 per cent who should have it, calls for a team approach employing, ideally, several specialists: industrial physician, psychiatrist, industrial nurse, counseling psychologist, medical social worker, and vocational counselor. Other specialists also enter the picture. The services of a cardiologist are of course required. Physical and occupational therapists, and other specialists may also make a contribution.

7. Counselors as well as physicians must remember that patients with severe heart conditions may want to work whereas those with minimal damage may not be so motivated. No two individuals respond to chronic illness in the same way, therefore each specialist will need to contribute not only his skill but also a tempered optimism in his efforts with cardiacs.

8. Organized labor objects to waivers which remove employer responsibility in the employment of cardiacs as well as others of the physically disabled. Sometimes, however, a waiver of rights to workman's compensation may seem desirable from the standpoint of the employee. In any case, waivers should be based on findings of a team of specialists in heart disease and rehabilitation.

9. Legislation may be needed to limit employer liability when heart attacks occur on an employer's premises. The concern here is with first disablements, not second injuries. An authority should be set up to establish degrees of impairment and of concomitant liability in cardiac cases.

10. A team of interested professionals should help prepare a medical, educational, social, and vocational program for a cardiac child from the time he is known to have heart disease to the time that he has suitable job placement or is successfully habilitated. During grade and high school years such a team should include, at least, the child's parents, physician, nurse, teacher, and counselor. A cardiac child should be encouraged early to acquire attitudes, knowledges, and skills that ready him for jobs he can do.

The Counselor's Role

It is impossible to solve all the problems of the chronically ill. No doubt some cardiacs must settle for less. With them it is a matter of learning to live with restrictions imposed by disability. Of the 85 per cent who survive a first heart attack, however, 75 per cent return to work for their old employers, usually at the same jobs they held before their heart attack.

In a nation in which five per cent of the working population has heart disease, and in which 400,000 people with coronary heart disease are being added to the labor market yearly, vocational counselors can play an important role by knowing and appreciating not only the physical limitations but also the personal and vocational problems of cardiac clients.

There is no record of anybody ever being drowned in sweat.

—Burton Hillis

self-Concepts
and
Stereotypes
of
Vocational

by RICHARD A. SCHUTZ

Preferences

and DONALD H. BLOCHER

OVER THE YEARS a considerable amount of attention has been focused on the process of vocational choice. The real truths remain to be discovered.

One of the better known theories proposed to explain this process is that of Bordin [1]. He contends that a person's occupational interests are a function of his self-concept and his stereotype of various occupations. Bordin suggests further that an individual's interest in a vocation varies directly with the degree of acceptance of the occupational stereotype as self-descriptive.

The present research¹ attempts to test an hypothesis derived from Bordin's contention. It seeks to determine if in a population of high school males there is a greater than chance tendency to select as self-descriptive personality descriptions which also presumably describe the stereotype of workers in occupations selected as vocational preferences. Bordin's theory suggests that such a tendency exists.

Procedure and Population

The population used in the study consisted of all male students (N = 135) in the twelfth grade of a suburban senior high school. The subjects were atypical in a number of respects. As a group they were of above average socioeconomic status. The average Otis Camma IQ of the senior class was approximately 114. Approximately 85 per cent of the graduates of the high school enter college. In view of these factors it is not surprising

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¹This article is based upon part of the joint research done by the writers for their 1959 Ph.D. dissertations at the University of Minnesota under Professors W. E. Dugan, E. P. Torrance, and C. G. Wrenn.

that the subjects tend to have rather high vocational-educational

aspirations.

Two instruments were developed for use in this study. The first consisted of an alphabetically arranged list of the 45 occupations commonly scored on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB). Using this instrument, each subject was asked to select the one occupation which he considered to be the most interesting. This one most interesting occupation was referred to in this research as a subject's vocational preference. The SVIB occupational group from which each subject's vocational preference was selected was then noted.

The second instrument, which was entitled Character Sketches. consisted of ten short paragraphs.1 Each paragraph gave a brief personality description or "sketch" of a boy's personality. These ten sketches were designed to correspond to the common stereotypes of typical members of occupations in the major occupational groups of the SVIB.2 The following sketch, intended as the stereotypic description of workers in SVIB Group IX (Sales), is presented to illustrate the general nature of the personality descriptions on this instrument.

John enjoys meeting lots of people, talking with them, and influencing them. He is always one to get things started and hates to work under supervision or regulations. He does his best work when he is free to use his own initiative and drive. Profit and success motives are important to him. Everybody recognizes that he has a "pretty good line," and he isn't easily discouraged by "No."

Sketches Selected

Using this Character Sketch instrument, each subject was asked to select the sketch of the personality most like himself. This task was performed one week after the subjects had selected their vocational preferences. The students had no knowledge of the relationship between the Character Sketch descriptions and the SVIB occupa-

tional groups.

A 10 x 10 scattergram was constructed showing the way in which the student's responses to these two instruments were distributed. Each of the 10 rows of the table correspond to one of the 10 Character Sketch descriptions. Each of the 10 columns of the table corresponded to one of the SVIB occupational groups. For each subject a tally was placed in the row corresponding to his Character Sketch selection and in the column corresponding to the SVIB group from which he selected his vocational preference.

It then became possible to determine if any association existed between the sketches chosen by the students as most nearly self-descriptive and their stated vocational preferences. The existence of an association was indicated if the students tended to select as self-descriptive those sketches which corresponded to the SVIB groups from which they also selected vocational preferences. The null hypothesis tested can be stated as follows: There is no association between Character Sketches selected as selfdescriptive and SVIB groups from which vocational preferences were selected.

² One personality sketch was used to describe typical workers in both SVIB Groups VII and VIII.

¹ This instrument was developed from preliminary research done by E. Paul Torrance, University of Minne-

Because of the very small frequencies to be expected on the basis of chance in so many cells of the resulting scattergram, the chisquare test for determining the existence of a significant relationship was not appropriate for testing the above null hypothesis. Furthermore, it did not seem logical to combine the categories of either of the two nominal scales making up the scattergram in order to increase the expectancies. Therefore, the binominal test, as outlined by Siegel [2], was the statistical test employed. To use this technique, the population was conceived as consisting of two classes: (a) those who were consistent, i.e., those who selected as self-descriptive the Character Sketch of the SVIB group from which they had previously chosen a vocational preference and (b) those who were inconsistent. An inconsistent case was any individual who selected as self-descriptive a character sketch corresponding to a SVIB group different from the SVIB group from which he had selected his vocational preference.

Research Results

Application of the binomial test revealed that significantly more students were consistent in selecting as self-descriptive the character sketch of workers in the SVIB group from which they also selected their vocational preferences than would be expected on the basis of chance. The difference was significant at the .01 level. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected.

Discussion and Conclusions

The findings in this research appear to offer a form of support for

Bordin's theory. The subjects were asked to express their acceptance of a particular view of themselves in terms of occupational stereotypes. A statistically significant relationship was then found between vocational preferences and stereotypes selected as self-descriptive. It should be pointed out that the existence of a statistically significant relationship of course does not mean that the relationship is perforce of practical significance.

Obtaining positive results in a study of this nature by no means implies the final validation or final acceptance of a theory of vocational choice. Certainly the investigation possible limitations. atypicalness of the population used has been mentioned. Possibly different findings would have been obtained for an unselected population. Restricting the range of possible vocational preferences to the 45 SVIB occupations represents a further limitation of the study. Then too, the Character Sketch form used here is at best an unrefined instrument. Its personality descriptions represent only what the investigators believe are broad, general, commonly accepted stereotypes of workers in the various occupational groups of the SVIB.

This type of preliminary investigation perhaps makes its most significant contribution through its value as a stimulus to further research. An instrument such as the Character Sketch form possibly could be used in counseling to obtain quick impression of the way students see themselves in relationship to various occupations. These research results support the idea that students' vocational choices are influenced in part by the stereotypes they hold of different occupations. Proper knowledge of these stereotypes should contribute toward more adequate vocational choices. In counseling it would undoubtedly be worthwhile to exert greater effort toward giving students more accurate, first-hand knowledge of workers in different occupations.

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New Books

On Vocational Guidance



by DELMONT K. BYRN

Vocational Maturity of Ninth-Grade Boys, by Donald E. Super and Phoebe L. Overstreet in collaboration with Charles N. Morris, William Dubin, and Martha B. Heyde. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960. 212 pp. \$5.25.

Career Pattern Study Monograph Two, following Vocational Development: A Framework for Research, focuses on the concept of vocational maturity. The authors explore ways to measure vocational maturity, then assess the vocational maturity of ninth-grade boys, ascertaining the relationships between vocational maturity and other personal and background variables. New approaches to persistent school problems are suggested.

The Information Service in Guidance: Occupational, Educational, Social, by Willa Norris, Franklin R. Zeran, and Raymond N. Hatch. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1960. 598 pp.

This text describes the role of the information service in the guidance program and the contribution the service makes to the choices and adjustments of students. Major divisions of the book are: Introduction, The Occupational Phase, The Educational and Social Phases, Sources of Information-Local, Presentation of Information, and Programming the Service. Chapters deal with such topics as demands of society, the world of work, evaluating occupational information, the information services library, presenting information to groups, and using information with individuals.

Psychology of Personal Adjustment (third edition), by Fred McKinney. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1960. 490 pp. \$6.50.

In this college students' introduction to mental hygiene the basic principles of human behavior are emphasized. Chapters discuss: Nature and Goals of Adjustment, Adjustment to College Work, Understanding Oneself, Development of Personality, Creative Adjustment, Personal Efficiency, Values and Thought Careers and Personality, Vocational Choice, Social Adjustment, Leadership and Group Roles, Affections and Conventions, Marital Adjustment, Emotional Stability, Self-Confidence, and the Adjustive Personality. An instructor's manual is available.

Effective Living, by Lois Smith Murray. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. 294 pp. Paperbound \$3.75.

This looseleaf workbook for freshmen is an introdisciplinary approach to adjustment to the demands of college. Main problem areas are: how to study, use of the library, interpersonal relationships, and self-discipline. The workbook uses text, bibliographies, and 40 perforated exercise sheets to provide the student the tools of self-discovery. Sample exercises: Your concept of college, habit analysis, religious adjustment, measure your manners, sex information, your philosophy of life.

Physical Disability—A Psychological Approach, by Beatrice A. Wright. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960. 408 pp. \$6.

The behavior and adjustment of physically deviate persons is studied in this social-psychological approach to disablement. The book analyzes problems and solutions common to all physical disability groups of all ages and deals with how the person himself and the parent may meet the challenge imposed by disability. Sample chapters: Development of the Self-Concept, The Client as Company Manager in Rehabilitation, An Assessment of the Field of Somatopsychology.

Aging in Today's Society, edited by Clark Tibbitts and Wilma Donahue. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 448 pp. \$6.

First published by The Fund for Adult Education under the title Aging in the Modern World, the book presents a collection of essays and readings describing the growth of leisure in American society and particular implications for middle-aged people. The subject matter is applicable to courses in sociology, social gerontology, psychology, and in-service training in adult education, home economics, social work, family life, and recreation.

Occupational Information: It's Development and Application (third edition), by Carroll L. Shartle. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. 384 pp. \$8.65.

After the introduction to the uses and need for occupational information, the reader is given an overall picture of the world of work and its social values. Included are chapters on the work place; occupations, jobs, and positions; job analysis; surveys; occupational classifications; published information; entry fields of work; occupational requirements; human disabilities; and military occupational fields.

Looking Toward High School, by Rolfe Lanier Hunt and Paul Pearson. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960. 33 pp. Paperbound \$1.50.

Written to help bridge the gap between junior high school or the eighth grade and high school, this is an activity text for students. It discusses values of high school, differences from elementary schools, getting started, curricular programs, courses, costs, and vocational preparation.

Tower: Testing, Orientation, and Work Evaluation in Rehabilitation, by Institute for the Crippled and Disabled, 400 First Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.: Institute for the Crippled and Disabled. 131 pp. \$4.95.

Herein is described the TOWER system for determining vocational potential, originated and developed by the Institute for the Crippled and Disabled. The system, a reality testing utilizing the work sample in a simulated work environment, is designed for use by a vocational evaluation unit within a rehabilitation center program or as a separate entity. The book presents the theory and evolution of vocational evaluation, the organization administration, physical plant, judgment of client performance and record keeping for the TOWER system.

Readings in Rehabilitation Counseling, Edited by C. H. Patterson. Champaign, Ill.: Stipes Publishing Co., 1960. 324 pp. (Spiral bound.) \$5.25.

Sixty three authors have contributed to this book of readings for use in the training of rehabilitation counselors. The journal articles are organized in ten sections: philosophy and background of rehabilitation, the role of the rehabilitation counselor, training of the rehabilitation counselor, basic principles of rehabilitation counseling, the counseling process, special evaluating procedures, placement and employment, rehabilitation centers and sheltered workshops, contributions of related professions, and integration of services.

Epilepsy League Publications

Epilepsy Bibliography, 1956–1960, 23-page publication of the National Epilepsy League, Inc., annotates the professional (non-medical) literature of epilepsy since 1955.

A special issue (May 1960) of *Horizon* from the same source presents a series of articles including one of employment problems for lay reading on epilepsy. The 12-page tabloid sized paper, equivalent to a 50-page booklet, can be used as free handout material to epileptic clients.

The National Epilepsy League, Room 201-2, 208 North Wells Street, Chicago 6, Illinois makes no charge for either of the above. They were prepared by George N. Wright, director.

New Booklet on College Financing

How About College Financing: A Guide for Parents of College-Bound Students prepared by the American School Counselor Association is available from the APGA office, 1605 New Hampshire Avenue, N. W., Washington 9, D. C., at 30¢ per copy.

The 20-page 1960 booklet, edited by Carl O. Peets, was made possible through a grant from The Kiplinger Association.

Job Placement of the Emotionally Handicapped

A - Practitioner's Point of View

by SYLVIA B. GREENBERG

NE DRAMATIC RESULT of chemotherapy in treating the mentally ill is the current release from hospitals of many so-called long term patients. These individuals, institutionalized between five and ten years and sometimes longer, together with those who have been hospitalized for shorter periods, form a sizable group seeking job counseling and placement from the non-profit employment agencies. It is here that they hope to find, and usually do, understanding and special help with their employment problems.

Their efforts to make a satisfactory job adjustment present many of the same aspects as those of other handicapped groups. There is the necessity to reactivate old skills or learn new ones. Sometimes there is the need to adjust to limited work tolerances, to examine work motivations, to overcome inertia and fear occasioned by prolonged periods of unemployment. They face the same need to determine vocational interests and make a realistic choice of occupation as non-handicapped individuals. But in addition, the emotionally handicapped person returning to work meets some difficulties which are unique to his disability.

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The Environmental Problem

One of his chief problems is environmental; the other is internal and a product of his disease. The environmental problem is, of course, the community's attitude toward mental disease.

That this attitude has been changing gradually to sympathy and understanding, is true. Landy and Griffith report in the July-August 1958 issue of Rehabilitation the encouraging results of a deliberate attempt to "sell" employers "the feasibility of using employees with current or past behavior disabilities." This individual effort notwithstanding, most employment counselors would agree that it is easier to interest an employer in hiring a prison parollee or physically handicapped person than a discharged mental patient.

Such employer reluctance is not necessarily the result of prejudice. For it is true that no one can predict how an emotionally handicapped person will behave in a specific environment, and further, a behavior disorder in one employee can be highly demoralizing to an entire group.

This employer wariness is particularly unfortunate for the mental patient since he has learned through psychotherapy to accept himself and his illness without shame. Generally, he will talk openly with the placement counselor about his

psychiatric history and often expects to be equally candid with employers. The counselor may respond by alerting his client to the possibility of employer rejection, or he may let the client discover it for himself in the course of job hunting. Either course has its disadvantage-the first, that it may arouse anxiety and hostility to the interviewer: the second, that it exposes the client to rejection and frustration.

Accounting for his period or periods of unemployment, without disclosing his psychiatric history, is a problem for the discharged patient. Women, generally, have less difficulty than men since society has come to expect gaps in a female work history-time out for child bearing and rearing, for housekeeping responsibilities, and for just plain "not working." A mature man, on the other hand, especially in these years of labor shortages, is expected to have worked steadily. Only if he possesses a high level of skill which is in demand does he have a reasonable chance of being hired by an employer aware of his past.

What role the employment counselor plays in this dilemma is a matter of individual judgment. tainly no responsible professional will undertake job referral of an exmental patient without obtaining a current medical report from the hospital, the after-care clinic, or the psychiatrist. But whether he will assist the client to prepare an acceptable work history depends on his own philosophy of counseling, his estimation of and his relation-

ship to the client.

Even if the counselor were able to effect the placement of an emotionally handicapped individual in every instance by revealing his psychiatric record to an employer, this shared knowledge might do a disservice both to employer and employee. It might cause the employer to be unduly observant of his new employee, and it might give the employee license to claim privileges which he neither needs nor should be allowed.

Ex-Patients Perceptions

The second big problem facing the psychiatric patient who wishes to return to work is his image of his prospective employer and his relationship to him. Many individuals coming from extensive hospitalization or psychotherapy tend to regard "the boss" as an extension of the therapist, and the job as therapy to be undertaken in a protected environment." In this point of view the client is often supported by hospital counselors and social workers who are, understandably, patient-centered. unless the client is going into a sheltered workshop, such planning is unrealistic. Often the client will seek placement in a non-profit agency expecting that the pressure there will be less than in private industry. But the fact is that social agencies do not necessarily provide a sheltered environment, nor is their purpose therapy for their employees. The best the employment counselor can effect is placement for the client with an employer who is relatively tension free and whose organization is relatively relaxed.

Helping the client view the employer, not as a paternal figure but as a human being neither better nor worse than anyone else, is an important part of the counselor's job. One technique that has proved useful is to describe the employer as an ordinary man faced with the usual problems of making a living, getting along with his family, and meeting his responsibilities. If the client can accept this concept of an employer, he has made a constructive step toward realistic job adjustment. He will, then, have no need to confide his psychiatric history to the employer hoping for special consideration, and he may even develop a better understanding of the employer's attitude toward mental illness.

In his efforts to lead the client gently from a sheltered world to the world of work, the counselor will be most effective if he "hopes for the best but is prepared for the worst." For it is impossible in an initial interview (and not much easier in subsequent ones) to evaluate the client's work readiness. Knowledge of a client's experience in a sheltered workshop, if available, is, of course, very valuable. But predictions are not very reliable, and it is not unusual to place an ex-mental patient in what appears to be a suitable job, only to have him resign with some excuse after a day or so. Each work experience can be helpful, however. and sometimes after one or two initial flights the client may settle down to steady employment.

Counseling, then, must be viewed as a trial and error process—a testing of the applicant's strength and ability to resume working, and a demonstration of the counselor's skill, patience, and understanding in assisting him.

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The Old Counselosopher Says



If ambitions must be scaled down, do so gradually and with dignity.

No person should try to fool himself into thinking he is broadminded.

When a person chooses a mate he determines his children's ancestors.

There are many aspects of social adjustment besides conformity.

As adjustment is largely a mental activity, much of it takes place with little apparent activity.

It is much easier to be critical than it is to be correct in working with others.

For every teacher or counselor who listens too much during student interviews there probably are 100 who talk too much.

Since the adolescent gets his main feelings of status from peer society, he is most susceptible to the influence of its standards.

Economic necessity may force emancipation relatively early on a working-class adolescent; wealth and education may prolong the period of dependency in upper-class youth.

Why shouldn't youth be frustrated when forced to delay marriage for economic reasons long after biological adequacy has been established?

Democratically speaking, each individual has the right to be as quiet, submissive, and withdrawn as he wants to be.

Frequent change of vocational goals is not necessarily bad—it may represent faster progress than most youngsters make.

We cannot really know the problems troubling a student without wanting to help him; not knowing him usually means not helping him.

Academic failure is often caused by things not even remotely connected to academic life.

Almost everything is an experiment for teenagers.

Philosophies of life should be built, not prefabricated.

Not all thinking is problem solving; not all problems are solved by thinking.

A person may run because he is afraid or be afraid because he runs.

The Older Worker and His Job Search

by NORMAN POPPEL

WITH INCREASED MEDICAL KNOWLEDGE there has come about a substantial increase in the individual's life expectancy. With added life expectancy have come

new unemployment woes.

The total number of older persons in the population has been steadily growing and will continue to grow. At the present time persons over age 60 represent about nine per cent of the population. With this growth of older persons the available labor supply has also increased, thus bringing about a situation wherein the country can have large numbers of persons unemployed at a time of high employment.

Prejudice Against Age

The problem that the older person faces is one of attitude: the attitude of the employer. No matter what the degree of prosperity or the percentage of employment, employers remain fixed in their hiring practices and the younger worker usually is preferred.

The fact that an older person who wishes to work is unemployed usually has little to do with him personally. The major reason for the unemployment of the older person, in most areas of the country, is that

the supply is greater than the demand. With such a circumstance

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in existence, employers tend to become highly selective in their hiring practices. In some cases this involves inventing imaginary job requirements so as to weed out the individuals whom they feel are un-

Generally speaking, regardless of the factors of supply and demand, many employers are reluctant to hire the mature individual. In some cases workers are considered as being too old to be hired at age 40. The rationale for this reluctance usually is based on the belief of employers that older persons are less adaptable, slower to learn, will increase pension costs, and can give fewer years of productive work. Some of these reasons may be true, but they always depend upon the individual under consideration.

It is true that with the advance of years the individual slows down and may no longer be as physically strong as he was in his youth. But, there are relatively few jobs that require an enormous physical strength and in many jobs steady, careful production makes up for speed of endeavor. In other words, quality of production can be more important than quantity.

Older Job Candidates

What the individual has to offer to an employer is made up of a variety of things. First and foremost are occupational skills acquired over a period of many years. The skills the individual has may be greater or lesser than those of a fellow job-seeker, but this is true only in terms of the requirements of the specific job being applied for—not in terms of the individual's age.

It is the job of the professional agencies, organizations, and individuals who work with the older person to help educate employers to the fact that older workers are good candidates for many jobs. As compared to other workers they have proved to be:

- 1. as productive,
- 2. as efficient,
- 3. better in attendance,
- 4. more attentive,
- 5. more conscientious,
- 6. less likely to be injured,
- 7. less likely to quit.

Perhaps the greatest contribution the older worker makes to a firm is his experience in working with other people and his knowledge of the conditions and attitudes of work.

With these qualifications does the older worker usually get the job? Regretfully, no. Often, after a few unsuccessful attempts to seek work, he gives up. It cannot be stressed strongly enough that the only way to find a job is to look for one. It is to this principle that this article is addressed: the methods and techniques available to the individual in his job search.

The Job Search

Once an individual has registered with those agencies which offer assistance in locating employment, he cannot afford to sit back and wait. Agencies have only a specified amount of time to offer to each individual. The worker himself has, in a sense, almost unlimited time at his disposal with which to conduct his job search.

Perhaps the most important assistance a counselor can give an older worker client is to encourage him to keep looking. The employer is not going to come looking for the job applicant, unless the applicant is known in his particular area of endeavor and has special skills. Staying at home will not enable the individual to be available when a job opportunity presents itself.

At the outset of any job search it is necessary that the individual decide what it is he is looking for. A person without a drivers license looking for a position as a chauffeur would appear somewhat ridiculous at a job interview. It, therefore, becomes necessary to do an audit of the person. His skills, interests, education, past work experience, and personal characteristics must all be evaluated. It is important that the client be helped to recognize both his assets and limitations, what he can and cannot do.

A medical report from his physician indicating his physical condition is important. The counselor must not place the worker in such circumstances that might be injurious to his health.

In his search for work the client should be encouraged to utilize as many job hunting sources as are available to him. In addition to the state agencies and the recognized private agencies, he should be encouraged to contact his friends and relatives. If he is a former union member his local headquarters should be informed of his availability for work. More often than not, it is the individual's personal contacts which ultimately result in his obtaining a position.

In large metropolitan areas the newspapers provide a "central file" of job opportunities. As important as these large papers are to the job hunter, the smaller neighborhood papers are just as important. They too carry listings of job openings. More often than not these positions are located near enough to the person's home to substantially reduce his travel time and distance. By obtaining a neighborhood job he may be able to avoid the necessity of "rush hour" travel.

Where financially feasible, the counselor may encourage the client to advertise for himself under the Situations Wanted listings. The counselor should assist the client in preparing the "ad" and in selecting the proper newspaper in which to

place it.

Contacting former employers and enlisting their assistance may prove beneficial. While they may have no openings in their own firms they may know of openings and may possibly intercede on the client's behalf. Employers sometimes list their job needs with their trade associations and constant contact

should be maintained with these organizations to solicit job openings.

These are only a few of the methods the older person can be assisted to utilize on his own behalf. But, above and beyond this, there is one basic principle which should govern the counselor's working with the client. This is the "reality principle": it is senseless and unethical to work with a client toward goals

he can never reach.

The client should be helped to understand what he can and cannot do. This should be done in terms of his physical condition, skills, and experience, and the demands of the labor market. Working with the older person requires the same counseling skills as working with the adolescent or young adult except, perhaps, for an additional amount of patience and resource-fulness.

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Training Programs for Girls and Women

Trade and Industrial Education for Girls and Women: A Directory of Training Programs, has been compiled by Mary S. Resh, program specialist of the Tandl Education Branch, Division of Voca-

tional Education, U. S. Office of Education.

The 65-page booklet is available at 30¢ per copy from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C. It is designed to assist school administrators, counselors, students, parents, personnel directors, employers, and others interested in locating schools which offer training for selected trade, industrial, and health occupations.

Mathematics Career Leaflet

Mathematics and Your Career, a 1960 revision of the pamphlet, is issued by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and the U. S. Office of Education. It is intended to bring the facts about the mathematics training required for employment in different occupations to one attention of high school and college students interested in planning their education.

Current Occupational Literature

by GUIDANCE INFORMATION REVIEW SERVICE



EMBERS of the Guidance Information Review Service are: Wilma Bennett, Edgewood Freshman High School, California; Irene Feltman, Southern Connecticut State College; Kenneth B. Hoyt, State University of Iowa; Harold Munson, New York State Department of Education; Ward Leis, Pasadena City Schools; Willa Norris, Michigan State University; Robert M. Wright, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College; Richard M. Rundquist (chairman), University of Kansas.

Subject headings have been adapted, with permission of the author, from *Occupations Filing Plan*, Wilma Bennett, 1958, Sterling Powers Publishing Co., 748 S. Paseo St., Covina, Calif.

Each item listed has been classified and coded in accordance with the following system:

Type of Publication

A-Career fiction

B-Biography C-Occupational monograph

D-Occupational brief

E-Occupational abstract

F-Occupational guide

G-Job series

H—Business and industrial descriptive literature

I—Occupational or industrial description

J-Recruitment literature

K-Poster or chart

L-Article or reprint

M-Community survey, economic report, job analysis

N-Other



Recommendation

- Highly recommended (maximum adherence to NVGA Standards).
- Recommended (general adherence to NVGA Standards).
- Useful (while because limited in scope it does not meet NVGA Standards, contains authentic, objective, timely, and helpful information).

AGRICULTURE

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AIR TRANSPORTATION

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AIR TRANSPORTATION-MECHANIC

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Scoring the Bennett

AND-SCORING Bennett's Test of Mechanical Comprehension Answer Sheet becomes easier if a square cut is made about each correct response on the scoring keys. Easier still if the counselee crosses with an X instead of circling his answer.—Peter P. Hale, Vocational Counselor, VA, Pittsburgh Regional Office.

Expected employment growth rates in selected building trades. 1960-70.... BUILDING TRADES GROWTH RATES RELATED TO AVERAGE FOR ALL BUILDING TRADES About | Slightly | Substan-Much Slightly Verv the Carpenters -Plumbers and pipefitters -Power-equipment operators (operating engineers) Electricians (construction) Structural, ornamental, and reinfercing - iron workers Plasterers : Coment finishers w HIED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Briefing \star \star \star the JOURNAL

by EMORY J. WESLEY

RALPH PRATOR, "Who Should Go to College?" California Iournal of Secondary Education, 35 (April, 1960), pp. 209-214.

This is a negative answer to the question as to whether only those of highest abstract academic ability should go to college. It points out that there is great variation in the level of academic ability necessary to do satisfactory work in the various colleges. "We know from accumulated statistics that the lowest level of ability in one college may be in the upper 10 per cent of ability in another college." The statement is made that placement of the minimum IO necessary for college attendance at 110 would automatically eliminate about 80% of college age youth.

The position is taken that not enough effort has been put into the guidance of youth into the type of college work appropriate to individual talent and opportunity. Such guidance would result in fewer young men and women striving for professional levels beyond their attainment and would result in a badly needed manpower reservoir of skilled technicians rather than an oversupply of professionals unemployable because of lack of positions. A plea is made for the reeducation of the patrons of colleges in the value system of occupational status. "The society which scorns excellence in plumbing, because plumbing is an humble activity, and tolerates shoddiness in philosopy, because it is an exalted activity, will have neither good plumbing nor good philosophy. Neither its pipes nor its theories will hold water.

STANLEY M. GOERTZEN, "Children's Concepts of Psychologists and Psychiatrists," California Journal of Educational Research, (September, 1959), pp. 172-176.

In this exploratory research the author has attempted to identify the concepts and attitudes of children toward psychologists and psychiatrists.

Included in the study were students from grades three, five, seven, and nine from the San Francisco Bay area.

These are the findings summarized by the author: (1) the higher the socio-economic group, the more correct the concept, (2) a consistent pattern was greater knowledge of the psychiatrist than the psychologist, (3) a large number of children held poor concepts of the psychologists and psychiatrists in the elementary school classes where no relevant discussion was held, and (4) the attitude towards the psychologists and psychiatrists were positive to a large degree.

Misconceptions of the psychologists and psychiatrists held by students suggest or indicate an educa-

tional need.-Janet Ikeda

CHESTER BABCOCK, "Organizing for Effective Learning," Educational Leadership, 17 (April, 1960), pp. 402-405.

The implications for guidance workers in the best organization of schools for effective learning are many. This editorial and lead article in a series devoted to the same general subject in this challenges all the sacred cows of traditional school organization. Why do we continue with the abbreviated school year which was developed as a concession to a rural society which needed the summer labor of youth? Why must the school day be organized into periods of set lengths and be the same all week? Why must one teacher be assigned to one class? Why are teachers so universally assigned on a grade basis in elementary schools and on a subject basis in secondary schools? Do we have evidence which supports our policies of determination of class size? What should be done to better utilize mechanical aids for the routines of teaching in order to release teacher time for more creative teaching? Why are classrooms in new buildings intended for use of academic subject groups not as well adapted to modern teaching theory as are those intended for use as industrial arts shops, art workshops, and home economics classes?

Research work by guidance workers should play a leading role in formulating answers to these and similar questions.

J. T. Hunt, "Guidance and Exceptional Children," Education, 80 (February, 1960), pp. 344–348.

Educational goals and instruction for, and the personal needs and characteristics of, exceptional children are quite similar to those of normal children. Most handicapped children are handicapped markedly in only one way. Their differentiated guidance needs are greatest in just this one direction. However, because of generally inadequate guidance programs, this special need goes uncared for except insofar as classroom teachers are able to care for it.

A recent study by the U. S. Office of Education showed that a group of experienced teachers of exceptional children felt themselves to be unqualified to adequately take care of the guidance needs of their charges in several respects. This study gives leads for the direction of adjustments in teacher and counselor training.

The importance of counseling with parents of exceptional children was one of the areas pinpointed for attention.

Louis L. Klitzke, "Needed Research in Junior College Student Personnel Services," *Junior College Journal*, 30 (April, 1960), pp. 452-459.

Research is needed under each of five general categories: (1) individuals, (2) groups, (3) students and parents, (4) staff, and (5) lay public. The developmental and case study procedures are recommended as means of studying individuals as to their behavior patterns, their causal relationships with campus environmental aspects of student life, psychological concepts and attitudes, needs pertaining to vocational, educational, and personal problems.

What group techniques are most effective at the junior college level? What is the place of standardized tests? How should student organizations be evaluated? What differences are there between student activities in a two year college and a four year school? Does the "college-at-home" purpose of the junior college conflict with the natural adolescent desire to leave home?

What influences will, and should, the rapid expansion of enrollment have on the qualifications, duties, and administrative relationships of the student personnel workers? Just what are the functions of the student personnel service department in relation to the function of the community college as a community service agency?

JAMES R. BECK, JR., "High School Recruits—a Neglected Labor Market," Personnel Administration, 23 (March-April, 1960), pp. 40-43.

Since the Government is enjoying considerable success with its Federal Service Entrance Examination at the college level in securing very important professional, technical, and administrative workers, it is proposed that a similar program be developed which would tap the high school graduates as a source of employees for the support positions in the federal service.

The proposed name for the new recruiting instrument is Federal Assistant Career Examination—FACE. It would be a generalized examination covering several of the entry classifications and would have the merit of being simpler in form and less confusing to the potential employee, teachers, and counselors than the present system of multiple announcements and examinations.

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Paul C. Polmantier and John L. Ferguson, "Faking the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory," Educational and Psychological Measurement, 20 (Spring, 1960), pp. 79–82.

This study supports one made by Rabinowitz in 1954 which indicated that it was possible to fake attitudinal scores by giving instructions to simulate attitudinal orientations of particular types of teachers. This more recent study was based on experienced teachers and on teachers of both sexes rather than on female students as the former study was. 137 graduate students in the 1958 Summer Session at the University of Missouri constituted the experimental population. conclusion was that "Faking the MTAI must be recognized as possible if the subjects are oriented attitudinally toward representing themselves as particular types of teachers, such as permissive or authoritarian."

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THOMAS W. HARRELL, "The Relation of Test Scores to Sales Criteria," *Personnel Psychology*, 13 (Spring, 1960), pp. 65–67.

"Information about 21 petroleum salesmen was used to determine the relation of certain test scores to three criteria of proficiency in selling. A sales quota criterion was more predictable than ratings. Tests which gave significant differences between high- and low-producing salesmen were the Otis Test of Mental Ability, four scales of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, Tact and Diplomacy of the Moss-Hunt Social Intelligence Test, and the Sales Manager scale of the Strong Interest Test. The scales of the Washburne S-A Inventory did not differentiate between either the production or the ratings of salesmen."

Rodney Cline, "Moral and Spiritual Values in Education," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 37 (March, 1960), pp. 289–297.

The "doctrine of the whole child" makes it necessary that more than academic achievement and preparation for materialistic gains be included as components of education in the public schools. To quote from Bertrand Russell, "if man is to live with the new power he has acquired, he must grow up not only in mind, but in his heart."

Cline's conclusions are:

 Moral and spiritual emphases in education are necessary for the welfare of the child.

These emphases must be integral parts of the regular work of the school.

3. Major responsibility rests with the teacher. As the teacher is morally and spiritually concerned, the pupil will tend to become so.

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ROBERT M. PORTER, "Behavior Problems of Children," Journal of Teacher Education, 11 (March, 1960), pp. 92–96.

This is a study which follows the pattern of the 1928 investigation Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes by E. K. Wichman. This time the comparisons were between student teachers and mental hygienists rather than between practicing teachers and mental hygienists. The rank correlations between each of the four college

classes and the hygienists was almost

uniform, being near .40.

The future teachers ranked highest those problems associated with "morality or classroom management and routine," while the hygienists tended to consider most serious those that dealt with personality disturbances. For instance, students in each class listed stealing as the most important problem; the mental hygienists ranked "unsocial, withdrawing" at the top of the list.

George E. Hill and Donald A. Green, "The Selection, Preparation, and Professionalization of Guidance and Personnel Workers," Review of Educational Research, 30 (April, 1960), pp.

115-130.

The triennial review of research in guidance and counseling by this magazine summarizes the above titled area (one of the eight reviewed) as fol-"Research on the selection, preparation, and professionalization of guidance and personnel workers is, and has been, disappointingly limited in scope and intensity. One gets the impression that the most severe handicaps to such research have been: (a) lack of certainty as to ends sought, (b) lack of basic studies evaluating guidance practices, and (c) failure to communicate research findings through professional publication."

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WILLIAM P. ANGERS, "Parental Counseling in Psychological Services," Journal of Social Therapy, 5 (4th Quarter, 1959).

The swing from the authoritarian parent who exacted obedience by superior physical force if necessary to the parent who is ruled by his child has seen the rise of many difficulties in parent-child relationships. The counseling psychologist in many cases has tried to "assist parents in understanding their children so that each may learn to love and work with each other."

"The Case of an Annoying Little Girl" and "The Case of the Rebellious Boy" are used to illustrate procedures used in dealing with two not-so-extraordinary maladjusted children.

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER, "Standardized Tests," NEA Journal, 8 (November, 1959), pp. 18–21.

"What they are, how they are used

. . . and misused!"

The author defines standardized tests as "tests that contain questions calling for brief, definite, objectively scorable answers and that are accompanied by norms and standards so that the performance of the pupils may be interpreted on a common, understandable basis."

If test results are to be useable and of value, they must be part of a good testing program. The author lists five basic uses of test results:

 Help individual schools compare their classes with national norms for schools of the same kind.

Obtain information on the new student and check progress on the other students.

3. Diagnostic testing.

 Help students and their parents make realistic educational and vocational goals.

5. Adjustment counseling.

What are some of the misuses of tests?

1. Appraise teacher quality and

effectiveness.

2. Poor administration.

Coaching for tests.
 Interpretation of scores.

5. Value of IQ.

6. Isolation of single scores.

7. Using test results authoritatively. With the use of about 122 million standardized tests in U. S. schools in 1958, how can these results be used most effectively? The author answers this question by stating that the value of a test program centers around the entire school staff in combination with comprehensive, cumulative records.—Eileen Stansbury

HAMDEN L. FORKNER, "Sanity and Balance in Business Education," Balance Sheet, 41 (December, 1959), pp. 148–151.

It would be wrong, indeed disastrous to the American way of life, to adapt the curricula of our schools to conform to the sputnik-inspired critics of American education. On the contrary, instead of emphasizing mathematics and science at the expense of other spheres of education, more effort should be expended to attain a better balance.

The European system of education generally, and the Soviet one in particular, neglects the human values present from the early days in the American public schools. Education should be for all phases of life—economic, social, political, as well as scientific and militaristic.

A particular case is made for the urgent need of greater emphasis in the economic sphere. Too many unwise decisions are being made in that area now because of lack of proper understandings by the populace in general.

WILLIAM C. Morse, "The School's Responsibility for Discipline," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 41 (December, 1959), pp. 109–113.

Schools are paying more attention to the question of discipline. This is the result of the schools' assuming responsibility for the whole child rather than for just intellectual development and of the inclusion of all children rather than just the select few in the schools clientele. The recent panic in some schools toward a "basic" or "hard" education has made educational offerings and requirements more unsuited than ever to many youths and thereby encouraged development of behavior problems.

"While responsibility changed, new methodologies lagged behind. We have kept the same basic assembly line and have tried to perform the expanded task by altering a few of the feeder sub-assemblies, such as special service departments. There are many statements of intent, but we have not tooled up to the new tasks. For character is not to be taught like spelling. If we are serious about this responsibility, we must be ready for vast changes in curriculum, methods, teacher-pupil contacts, and time distribution arrangements—to mention a few areas."

New disciplinary skills must be The old discipline of the learned. rod must be replaced with a discipline based on knowledge of child psychology and growth. One necessary skill is what Redl has described as "life space interviewing." The schools should take a foremost place in all campaigns for the development of other community services for children, "ranging from foster homes and clinics to psychiatric hospitals and detention facilities dedicated to rehabilitation.'

PAUL E. CABLE, "The Need for Orienting New Teachers," Peabody Journal of Education, 37 (September, 1959), pp. 102-106.

The importance of orienting new teachers is coming to be more emphasized. The belief that they have been oriented by virtue of their professional education or by experience in a previous job is passing.

"There seems to be a cavernous gap between lip service to believing orientation is essential and the actual operation of such programs." To develop a constructive program of constructive action in this area is one of the prime duties of administrators. Studies in the Chicago area, in Alabama, and other places have shown that new teachers and the schools they serve are benefitted by orientation service and that where it is not given it is desired by teachers.

Help in early adjustment improves receptivity to later help. The freshness of ideas, the strength of youth, the idealism, the vibrant enthusiasm often brought by new teachers should be preserved and utilized through a program of help rather than be allowed to wither and die. The securities and happiness of teachers and the mental health atmosphere of the classroom can depend on how satisfactorily the teacher is oriented.

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Weston La Barre, "How Adolescent Are Parents?" National Parent-Teacher, 54 (December, 1959), pp. 4-6.

Parents have usually shaped their personalities during their adolescence and so have personalities modeled on influences and situations that are at least twenty years old. This is the reason why most adolescents view parents as old-fashioned. The differences in generations are seen by comparison of the rigid and sure Victorians with the unsure, repressed, sedate Edwardians, or the Edwardians with the wild generation of the roaring twenties, or the generation of the twenties as parents shaped by depression and war with the Beat Generation.

An immature parent places blame for what he is on his parents or his times. The mature adult accepts responsibility for what he is and will be. He makes judgments, even though fallible, based on a set of values. He sets standards for his children and provides them with a good example in his own behavior.

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LLOYD M. DUNN, "The Slow Learner—an Overview," NEA Journal, 48 (October, 1959), pp. 19–21.

While concern with the slow learner is an old problem to educators, attempts to help them on a scientific basis rather than a traditional and philosophical one is comparatively new. Typically, the slow learner is the pupil whose IQ ranges between 75 and 90; this group makes up approximately one-fifth of the population of the average school. He should be

identified not only by intelligence tests but by achievement tests, tests of personality, interest inventories, teacher judgments, etc.

"Perhaps the biggest single error made in teaching these youngsters is expecting them to work up to their physical age rather than their mental age." They should be expected to achieve at between grade seven to grade nine levels by the time they finish high school. They are below normal usually in curiosity, creativity, and critical thinking in connection with their school work.

As they get older they get farther and farther behind their average and superior classmates thus making the problem a more acute one in the secondary school than in the elementary It should be remembered that it is in school that the slow learner meets his most difficult times. Often before he enters school he is so near average in social and physical development that he is not recognized as a slow learner. Often after he leaves school he finds his way "into the unskilled or semi-skilled professions, marries, raises a family, and generally carries a reasonable and important share of responsibility as an adult citizen."

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"Jobs in Journalism," Changing Times, 13 (December, 1959), pp. 29-31.

The glamor of jobs in journalism has faded with the impact of grim tales, some of them true, of poor pay in many newspaper jobs. Yet it is a very good field for the right person. There are many satisfactions to be found in journalistic work. The press is a vital tool of democracy. there is a variety of choice of good jobs with respectable paychecks. A recent survey by the American Newspaper Guild revealed an average starting minimum for reporters of \$66 a week and approximately \$125 a week after four to seven years experience. Top reporters may receive \$800 to \$1,000 a month.

Publishers rank manpower shortages as one of the major problems of the industry. University colleges and departments of journalism report that demand for their graduates exceeds the supply. There are 112 such schools and departments in this country. Seventy-five per cent to 80 per cent of student time in these schools is devoted to liberal arts studies. They are the prime source of talent for recruiters in journalistic fields.

MARY GOLDWORTH, "The Effects of an Elementary School Fast-Learner Program on Children's Social Relationships," Exceptional Children, 26 (October, 1959), pp. 59-63.

This is a summary of a doctoral study at Stanford University and involved 515 children whose IQ's were above 120 as measured by two widely used intelligence tests. Two hundred and four of the children were an experimental group and attended special classes with special teachers. The control group of 211 remained in regular classrooms.

". . . this study suggests that for regular classroom groups, the fast-learner program (a) had a limiting effect on the number of classmates which children accepted as best friends, and (b) had no effect on fast-learners' acceptance of classmates as best-friends, on group cohesion, or on sub-group preference."

CHARLES A. BUCHER, "Planning a College Education," Woman's Day, 4 (January, 1960), pp. 22, 23, and 70, 72.

This is the second in an excellent series of three articles published in a popular family magazine and written to explain a forthright approach for parents to use in order to assist them and their children to utilize intelligently the educational opportunities which are available to them. In this part, Dr. Bucher discusses the ways in which a school guidance program, through such measures as tests, inventories, achievement records, and teachers' estimates, assists boys and girls to know themselves and to plan for those programs of work and study for which they are best equipped.

Qualified advice is most important at the junior high school level where many complex problems exist and many important decisions have to be made. Dr. Bucher makes it plain that the counselor does not make decisions for the pupil, rather, this guidance officer helps pupils to solve their own problems as wisely as possible.—Norma Stangoni

EUGENE H. STIVERS, "Motivation for College in High School Girls," *The School Review*, 67 (Autumn, 1959), pp. 320–334.

Why do so many of our highly qualified girls fail to go to college after graduating from high school? Stivers maintains that the main reason is a lack of interest in higher education. In this article he has presented an interesting report of a study which was conducted among a group of girls in the top 25 per cent of their class in the tenth grade of a midwestern high school. The study was intended to discover why it is that in a total group of intellectually capable girls, some want to go to college, while others do not.

In this group of girls, indications were that motivation for college was related to a moderate need for achievement. College bound girls also reported that significantly more individuals had set college as a standard of accomplishment. They expressed confidence that they could be successful in college.

Stivers concludes that a new view of the place of women in our society must be accepted so that there are more provisions for professional careers without demanding that those who

choose these pursuits abandon their traditional feminine role.—Norma Stangoni

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WILLIAM RUSSELL HOCHMAN, "Double Exposure In Education," NEA Journal, 48 (November, 1959), pp. 61–62.

In discussing educational reform today, there is little attention paid to the matter of duplication in high school and college courses. This common situation is a waste of students time and the repetition tends to de-

stroy their enthusiasm.

In general, high schools and colleges have the same goals: "to provide basic knowledge that can be a steppingstone to specialized work later; to rear citizens who can act with intelligence in political, economic, and social life; and to develop values and standards which enable people not only to live, but to live well."

The greatest difference in goals is that college students are a special group with a greater desire and capacity to learn more difficult material. This material should be built on high school curriculum, not offered as a repetition of the high school subject

matter.

Three things colleges can do to correct this situation are:

lect this situation are:

 College faculties should continue work done in high school by emphasizing the interpretation of selected ideas.

Colleges should stimulate research and writing projects based on knowledge obtained in high school.

Colleges should accept superior students on special terms and allow them to skip introductory courses.

There are also several things that

high schools may do:

 They should give students a solid subject-matter background which will be useful whether or not they enter college. They should stimulate students to make greater use of their minds, to evaluate, to criticize, and to make judgments.

3. They must develop in students an ability to present ideas in clear

organized writing.

 They should encourage the able student to do more difficult work and to prepare for advanced-placement examinations.

Cooperation between high school and college teachers in solving the duplication situation will result in better and more interested students at both levels of education.—Elinor Saville

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JANET E. BLECKNER, "The Responses of Average and Gifted Students on the Group Rorschach Tests," California Journal of Educational Research, (November, 1959), pp. 200-206.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were any differences in personality between "gifted" and "average" children. Cifted students were defined as those in the very superior range, and the average students were those with intelligence quotients ranging from ninety to one hundred and ten on the California Test of Mental Maturity.

The results of the study showed no significant differences in the categories of the Rorschach responses for the average and gifted groups. This substantiates results of previous

studies.

The results seemed to imply that gifted students have the same life conflicts but have wider varieties of responses to stress because of their higher verbal ability. Both gifted and average students, however, attempted to manipulate their environment better to serve their needs.—Janet Ikeda

It is easy in the midst of the crowd to be true to the crowd's opinion; it is easy in the solitude to be true to one's own; but the great man is he who in the midst of a crowd keeps the independence of the solitude.—*Emerson*





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